AMERICAN SPEECH

A Quarterly of Linguistic Usage

Volume XIX, 1944

Number 1, February
Number 2, April
Number 3, October
Number 4, December

Editor, WILLIAM CABELL GREET, *Barnard College*

Managing Editor, ELLIOTT V. K. DOBBIE
Associate Editor, JANE DORSEY ZIMMERMAN

Editorial Associates

LOUISE POUND, HARRY MORGAN AYRES, HOWARD J. SAVAGE
HAROLD W. BENTLEY, ALLEN WALKER READ

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY PRESS

1944

SHL
WITHDRAWN

Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2026

https://archive.org/details/american-speech_1944-02_19_1

AMERICAN SPEECH

VOLUME XIX FEBRUARY, 1944 NUMBER 1

War Words in England . . . . . H. L. MENCKEN 3
Anglo-French Etymologies . . . . . LEO SPITZER 16
American Speech in Radio Poetry . . . . . MILTON A. KAPLAN 28
'Highball,' to Speed . . . . . I. WILLIS RUSSELL 33
Notes on the Philadelphia Dialect . . . . . R. WHITNEY TUCKER 37
A Re-Examination of the Vocabulary of 'A Stray Yankee in Texas' . . . . . JOHN T. KRUMPELMANN 43
Fifth Column Marches On . . . . . DWIGHT L. BOLINGER 47
Phonetic Transcription 50
Editorials and Reviews 53
Kemp Malone, *Completing the Record of English* by William A. Craigie; C. K. Thomas, *Phonetics* by Kenneth L. Pike.
Bibliography 56
Among the New Words 60
Miscellany 65

Editor, WILLIAM CABELL GREET, *Barnard College*
Managing Editor, ELLIOTT V. K. DOBBIE
Associate Editor, JANE DORSEY ZIMMERMAN
Editorial Associates
LOUISE POUND, HARRY MORGAN AYRES, HOWARD J. SAVAGE
HAROLD W. BENTLEY, ALLEN WALKER READ

ADVISORY BOARD

1943–1944

HENRY ALEXANDER, *Queen's Univ.*
EINAR HAUGEN, *Univ. of Wisconsin*
MARGARET M. BRYANT, *Brooklyn College*
GEORGE R. STEWART, *Univ. of California*
G. P. WILSON, *No. Car. Woman's College*
DELANCEY FERGUSON, *Western Reserve Univ.*

1944–1945

MARGARET SCHLAUCH, *New York Univ.*
E. E. ERICSON, *Univ. of No. Car.*
JOSEPH M. CARRIÈRE, *Univ. of Virginia*
R-M. S. HEFFNER, *Univ. of Wisconsin*
JAMES B. MCMILLAN, *Univ. of Alabama*
S. I. HAYAKAWA, *Illinois Inst. of Technology*

CONTRIBUTORS' COLUMN FOR FEBRUARY, 1944

¶H. L. MENCKEN, the sage of Baltimore, needs no introduction to the readers of *American Speech*—or to any other readers, for that matter. ¶LEO SPITZER, one of the leading American scholars in Romance Philology, has been Professor at Marburg and Cologne in Germany, at Istanbul in Turkey, and (since 1936) at the Johns Hopkins University. The author of numerous books and articles on linguistics and literary history, he has in recent years turned his attention to problems of English etymology. Through use of the results of French lexicography, particularly of the French dialects, he has succeeded (here and in other articles) in throwing light on a number of English words whose origins had previously been obscure. ¶MILTON A. KAPLAN is an English teacher in a New York City high school. He has published poems in numerous periodicals, and at present is preparing a dissertation on Radio and Poetry, the subject of his article in this issue. ¶I. WILLIS RUSSELL has previously contributed several articles to *American Speech,* the most recent being 'Notes on American Usage,' in our issue for February, 1941. He is Assistant Professor of English at the University of Alabama, and for the past two years has been collaborating with James B. McMillan, of the same university, on a Linguistic Atlas of Alabama. ¶R. WHITNEY TUCKER is Professor of Foreign Languages at the Pennsylvania Military College. For the duration of the war, he is teaching geography as well as languages. ¶The most indefatigable gleaner after the *DAE* is JOHN T. KRUMPELMANN, Associate Professor of German at Louisiana State University, who has been a contributor to *American Speech* since 1926. Our readers will remember especially his two articles on 'Charles Sealsfield's Americanisms,' in our issues of February and April, 1941; a third article on Sealsfield is now in our files, and we hope to publish it soon. ¶DWIGHT L. BOLINGER, editor of 'Among the New Words,' has favored us this time with an article, as well as with his usual copy for the section on new words. At present Sterling Fellow in Linguistics at Yale University, in the fall he will go to the University of Southern California as Assistant Professor of Spanish.

¶Contributors of articles to *American Speech* can now expect prompt publication. During the last four years many an excellent manuscript has been held for a year or more before the opportunity came to print an article of its class. The portfolio is light now and there should be little or no delay between acceptance and publication.

American Speech is published four times a year (No. 1, Feb.—No. 2, Apr.—No. 3, Oct.—No. 4, Dec.) by Columbia University Press: Single copies, $1.00 (foreign, $1.10)—$4.00 a year (foreign, including Canada, $4.30). Subscribers should notify the Publisher of change of address at least three weeks before publication of issue with which change is to take effect.

Manuscript, editorial communications, and books for review should be addressed to The Editor of *American Speech,* Philosophy Hall, Columbia University, New York, N.Y. Subscriptions and business correspondence should be addressed to *American Speech,* Columbia University Press, 2960 Broadway, New York, or 450 Ahnaip St., Menasha, Wis.

Entered as second class matter March 26, 1938, at the post office at Menasha, Wis., under the Act of March 3, 1879. Copyright 1944 by Columbia University Press.

AMERICAN SPEECH

VOLUME XIX FEBRUARY, 1944 NUMBER 1

WAR WORDS IN ENGLAND

H. L. MENCKEN

Baltimore, Maryland

THE ENGLISH have a great many newspaper columnists like our own, and at the beginning of World War II those of the Walter Winchell moiety devoted themselves assiduously to coining new war words for civilian use. A few such deliberate coinages gained popularity, for example, *macon* and *Lord Haw-Haw,* both invented by William Hickey of the London *Daily Express.*[1] Even the austere editorial writers of the London *Times* and the Manchester *Guardian* took a hand in the business, and some of the newspapers offered prizes for apt suggestions. In March, 1941, Lord Woolton, head of the food ministry, made an appeal for a better name for the recently established community feeding centers. The London *Daily Mail* took over the servicing of this appeal, and printed many of the proposals sent in,[2] but nothing was concocted that seemed to take the public fancy. When one of the feeding centers was opened at Cowes the local authorities began to call it a *council cafeteria,* which fitted it admirably, but the Americanism was denounced by Sir Godfrey Baring, who called it 'a dreadful word' and 'wondered whether it had any official existence.'[3] In the end the new establishments were called *British restaurants,* which was obvious and reassuring, but hardly inspired. In other directions the English enrichers of the vocabulary did almost as badly, and as a result the number of pungent neologisms brought in by the war was not large. 'When we look for worthy successors to the rich

1. See the vocabulary following.

2. In its issue of March 29, for example, it listed *comfee café, pot-luck depot, victory restaurant, cookery nook, freedom restaurant,* and *wooltaurant.*

3. 'Communal Feeding Centres,' *Southern Daily Echo* (Southampton), March 26, 1941. The author of this article assured Sir Godfrey that *cafeteria* was 'a proper word, though the candid Webster admits that it is of American origin.' 'It means,' he continued, 'a coffee-shop, or, in greater detail, a restaurant in which patrons serve themselves at the counter and take the food to tables to eat. . . . I have tried *cafeterias* twice. Once in Oxford street, which had the largest and the first of them, and once at the Glasgow Exhibition, where the mutton-pies were memorable. There may be others I never heard of. . . . The *snack-bar* has become more popular than the *cafeteria.*'

and racy new words of the last war,' observed the London *Times* on October 12, 1940, 'is is clear that we must wait awhile yet. . . . It may be that this grimmer, deadlier conflict will lack some of the verbal color of the old.' A week later the Manchester *Guardian* discoursed gloomily upon the same subject. 'So far,' it said, 'the most significant and valuable addition in this war is *Quisling*.[4] . . . Jocular descriptions of war institutions are naturally ephemeral: thus, for instance, the names of *Minnie* and *Mew* for the Ministry of Information and the Ministry of Economic Warfare do not seem to have taken root. . . . An amusing name has recently been proposed for the people who walk their weary way, with blankets and pillows, to shelters for the night. *Somnambulist* being the word for sleep-walkers, the name of *bombambulist* has been suggested for them. Through its contents and associations it is indeed much in little.' But *bombambulist* failed to catch on, and so did most of the other new words suggested by hopeful columnists and editorial writers. 'Native coinings,' reported the London *Evening Standard,* which imitates the clipped syntax of the American *Time,*[5] 'far below 1914-1918 standard. Best is *parashot,* word probably permanent, since parachute now an accepted war instrument.' 'Am I right or wrong,' wrote Ralph Harold Bretherton in the Edinburgh *Evening Dispatch* more than a year later,[6] 'in thinking that this is a less slangy war than the last? . . . I cannot think of many words that we have coined.'

To add to the discomfort of the volunteer enrichers of the native language, a number of German terms began to force themselves in, notably *flak, lebensraum, panzer, ersatz* (revived after use in World War I), and *blitz* and its derivatives. There were violent protests by patriots against this invasion,[7] but in vain, and on June 19, 1941 the Edinburgh

4. See the vocabulary following.

5. 'War Makes New Words,' July 8, 1940.

6. Sept. 29, 1941.

7. For example, F. W. Sandys Harkness in the Belfast *News-Letter,* March 21, 1940: 'I protest, and protest strongly against the growing use by the press of ugly, alien words such as *blitzkreig* [*sic*], *ersatz* and *liebensraum* [*sic*]. Surely the English language is good enough for us.' Again, F. H. Sawyer in the Edinburgh *Scotsman,* June 13, 1941: 'May I utter a protest against the defilement of our language by the frequent use of the word *blitz* or *blitzed?* One might excuse its use by a music-hall comedian, but it recently appeared in the official minutes of a meeting of governors of an important institution, and I notice that it is used in your issue of today in connection with the pooling of ministers for bombed areas. As used in English the word is ugly, meaningless, and senseless, and it is to be hoped that those with any regard for their own language will discourage its use. In any case, why borrow, or steal, from the Huns?' Yet again, Lieut.-Col. J. S. Cunningham in the same paper, June 17: 'I entirely agree with Mr. F. H. Sawyer in his dislike of the word *blitz.* To me it is an idiotic word to adopt from the enemy, when we have perfectly good English words like *bomb* and

Evening Dispatch headed an article *'Blitz* Comes to Stay.' 'After all,' said the *Dispatch,* 'the word does express something that is not adequately expressed by any English word. And it has doubled its hold by becoming adjective and verb as well as noun.' 'Whatever the objection, legal or otherwise,' agreed A. W. Young in the London *Daily Sketch* on July 22, 1941, 'the word has come to stay.' Even the *Children's Newspaper* (London) took the same stand. 'A magistrate and a judge,' it said on July 26, 1941, 'have been objecting to the use of *blitz* in their courts. . . . They should remember that many of the words in our war dictionary have been imported from other languages. Perhaps this proves that our national genius is for peace rather than war.' To which may be added the resigned verdict of the eminent *News of the World* (London) on April 20, 1941: 'In this war we have already borrowed quite a number of words from the Germans, who in peacetime borrowed many sporting terms from us.'[8] The new words from America that were levied upon for war use—for example, *jitterbug*—were also attacked by the purists. 'The increasing importation of illiterate and ugly Americanisms,' wrote an anonymous correspondent of the Edinburgh *Scotsman* on May 30, 1940, 'is offensive as well as deplorable. These coarse vulgarisms are an affront both to good taste and to euphony.' But they made their way like the poisonous importations from Germany.

In the following vocabulary I have listed only terms encountered in English newspapers with some frequency. With a few exceptions, suggested neologisms that died with their projectors and other such nonce-words, most of them extremely feeble, have been avoided. The English are much more self-conscious about adopting new words than we are, mainly because the business is of rarer occurrence in their country than in the United States; as a result, they often engage in long and raucous debates over a novelty when it appears. I have appended dated examples in most cases, and have included several terms that go back to World

---

raid. In the last war we adopted *strafe*—an equally stupid and unsuitable word.' The same objection was also heard in the United States. On Sept. 15, 1943, the Detroit *Free Press* printed a letter signed Grace von Bergen saying: 'Can't the newspaper editors find other words to replace *blitz* and *ersatz*? I am tired of these terms and would appreciate good old American slanguage in preference.'

8. There were, of course, many German inventions that were reported and discussed, but not adopted. One was *Churchevelt,* a telescope form of *Churchill* and *Roosevelt,* used by the German radio at the time of the rescue of Mussolini, in September, 1943. The text, as reported by Reuter on Sept. 14, was: 'Before the *Churchevelts* had even half recovered from their astonishment, Germany's daring troops snatched Mussolini away to safety.' This was relayed to the United States the same day by the Associated Press.

War I. I have excluded all save a few of the almost innumerable terms made of the initial letters of the long titles of boards, commissions and war auxiliaries.

ALERT. An air-raid alarm. 1940 London *Times Literary Supplement,* Oct. 12 *Alert* will pass muster.

AMGOT. Allied Military Government of Occupied Territory. (From the initials of the words.) 1943 London *Daily Sketch,* July 19 The brilliant Sicilian adventure has brought a new word into being. The word is *Amgot.* 1943 *English Churchman* (London), July 22 It is certainly easier to talk of *Amgot* than of *Allied Military Government of Occupied Territories,* so the abbreviation is welcome. 1943 London *Daily Express,* Aug. 24 Miss Sylvia Mary Cameron-Smith . . . is acting civil administrator of Eritrea. . . . Miss Cameron-Smith was doing the first *Amgot* job long before the Allied Military Government of Occupied Territories was officially announced. She is the only woman whose name has been linked with such work.[9]

ARCHBLIMP. A barrage balloon. 1939 The Archbishop of Canterbury in the *Guardian* (London), Oct. 20 In my garden at Lambeth Palace are men who supply the balloon barrage and one of the balloons rises and descends every day. The men are good enough to call it the *archblimp.*

AREA. A section of a town laid off for fire-watching purposes. 1941 Plymouth *Western Evening Herald,* June 11 The city is divided into *areas,* each under the control of an *area* commander.

BADOGLIO. A surrender; also as a verb, to designate coming over to the Allies.[10]

BAEDEKER. An air raid on a place of historical interest. 1943 C. W. Ward-Jackson in *It's a Piece of Cake:* From Hitler's threats to raid such towns as Norwich and Canterbury.[11]

BALE OUT. To depart hurriedly. (From the aviators' verb phrase, meaning to leave an airship by parachute.) 1940 London *Star,* July 10 *Bale out* may last. It started as aviators' slang, and it has become accepted unconsciously. Official announcements use it, and ladies whose lips are seldom sullied by anything not in the dictionary let it fall quite naturally. Should it be spelled *bail out?*

BARRAGE BALLOON. (See *Archblimp, Gussie.*)

BARROON. (From *balloon* and *barrage.*) 1940 London correspondence of the *Irish Independent* (Dublin), April 8 Balloon barrages are called *barroons.*

BASIN-HAT. A metal helmet. (See also *bassinet, battle bowler.*)

BASSINET. A metal helmet. 1940 London *Times Literary Supplement,* Oct. 12 Many may regret that the tin hat is not universally called the *bassinet*—diverting mixture of *basin-hat* and ancient head armor. (See also *basin-hat, battle bowler.*)

BATTLE BOWLER. A metal helmet. 1940 London *Times Literary Supplement,* Oct. 12 The term *battle bowler* is pretty good. (See also *basin-hat, bassinet.*)

BILLETEE. An *evacuee,* which see. 1940

9. The abbreviation was soon attacked on two grounds—first, that the last syllable sounded German and second, that the whole was a Turkish word of obscene significance. Soon afterward, according to *American Notes and Queries,* Sept., 1943, p. 86, the American War Department shortened it to *AMG* (Allied Military Governments).

10. The first appearance of this word, so far as I have been able to find, was in the London *Daily Express,* Sept. 14, 1943, six days after the announcement of the Italian surrender and the appointment of Marshal Pietro Badoglio as premier and commander-in-chief. It did not last long, for it inevitably suggested embarrassing thoughts of *quisling,* which see.

11. These raids were made in revenge for an English raid on Heidelberg.

Edinburgh *Scotsman*, May 29 The word *billetee* made its first dreadful appearance in the press today.

BLACKOUT. Lights out during an air-raid alarm. 1939 Alec Clifton-Taylor in the London *Times*, Aug. 11 I have been waiting for one of your correspondents to question the propriety of this surprising expression: a *black-out*. Why should it not be termed a *lights-out*? Or even, conceivably, a *black-in*? But a *black-out* is surely exactly what it is not. 1940 London *Star*, July 10 This war has brought us quite a good crop of words, and most of them are unpleasant. The herald of them all was *blackout*, and what a hateful connotation it had!

BLITZ. A sudden and violent attack. (From the German *blitz*, lightning.) Also a verb. 1941 *News of the World* (London), April 20 *Blitz* has already become too familiar. It is the German for lightning flash. 1941 London *Daily Sketch*, Nov. 12 Several purists claim *blitz* has no place in our language. 1941 Birmingham *Sunday Mercury*, Nov. 23 If the last war's *strafe* is this war's *blitz*, what will it become in the war after next? (See also *fireblitzed*, *flare-blitz*, *blitzkrieg*, and the terms in *blitz-* following.)[12]

BLITZFIGHTER. An airman or soldier engaged in fighting against a *blitzkrieg*, which see. 1941 London *Daily Express* (headline) Cities' *blitzfighters* are named in Honours List.

BLITZFLU. The mild influenza, sudden in its attack, prevailing during the winters of 1941-42 and 1942-43.

BLITZKRIEG. (From the German *blitz*, lightning, and *krieg*, war; also used in a figurative sense.) 1940 William Hickey in the London *Daily Express*, Feb. 12 By popular vote of the readers of this column two German words have been naturalized English. They are *blitzkrieg* and *ersatz*. 1940 New York *Herald-Tribune*, May 15 The German Library of Information, at 17 Battery Place, says *blitzkrieg* was not a commonly used term before the full Nazi occupation of Czechoslovakia in March, 1939. At that time the German leadership used it to describe its method of operation. The term has most commonly been used since last September, when the Nazis moved into Poland. 1940 A. G. Thornton in the London *Star*, May 15 'Come on, *Blitzkrieg*!' says a British working man to his mate,[13] who is not in a hurry. 1940 London *Star*, July 10 *Blitzkrieg* has come right home to us. It is a typically German name for a typically German thing.

BLITZLULL. A lull in an aerial bombardment. 1940 London *Daily Express*, Dec. 20 Hitler's air force broke the *blitzlull* last night.

BLITZPEACE. See quotation. 1939 Baltimore *Evening Sun*, Oct. 31 (quoting the Detroit *News*) Fresh from his Polish

---

12. *Blitz* also made some new words in the United States—in all probability, more than in England. In *American Speech* for Dec., 1940, p. 352, Harold Carlson listed *blitz-attack*, *witskrieg*, *freezekrieg*, *heatkrieg*, and *Ritzkrieg*. Many of these, of course, were mere nonce-words. *Ritzkrieg* appeared in a headline of the New York *World Telegram*, April 27, 1940, over a dispatch from Hollywood announcing that the Ritz brothers, movie comedians, had 'deserted "The Boys From Syracuse" because their rôles weren't big enough.' In *American Speech* for Feb., 1940, p. 110, Dr. Louise Pound noted that *blitzkrieg* was being used at Columbia University to signify any sort of attack. I have also encountered *Fritzkrieg*. *Blitz* has been long used by the Germans in compounds, *e.g.*, *blitzlicht* (a magnesium light), *blitzzug* (a fast train, *cf. lightning-express*), *blitzgespräche* (an expedited telephone call), *blitztelegramm* (a rush telegram), and *blitzlexikon* (a succinct, ready-reference encyclopedia, *e.g.*, Meyers *Blitz-Lexikon;* Leipzig, 1932).

13. A fellow worker.

triumph, the Führer is about to unveil his latest and greatest sensation, the *blitzpeace.*

BLOCK. A section of a town laid off for fire-watching purposes. (See *area.*)

BLOCK-BUSTER. An air bomb large enough to knock down a whole block of houses.

BLOOD, TEARS AND SWEAT. 1940 Winston Churchill in the House of Commons, May 13 I have nothing to offer but blood, toil, tears and sweat.[14]

BOLSHEVIK. A radical. (Russian.) 1940 J. M. Michaelson in the Newcastle *Weekly Chronicle,* March 23 *Bolshevik* is now applied to anyone of extreme revolutionary tendencies, even in subjects quite removed from politics. *Bolshy* means majority, and the *bolsheviks* were supposed to be the majority, as against the *menshviks,* the minority.[15]

BOLSHIE, or BOLSHY. A *bolshevik,* which see. 1940 *Surrey Comet* (Kingston-on-Thames), March 18 *Bolshie* and *Nazi* have passed into currency.

BOLONA. A bombless night. 1941 Oldham *Evening Chronicle and Standard,* April 19 The Germans have devised the word *bolona,* which is not an adaptation of our *baloney,* but is made up of parts of two German words—*bombenlose nacht,* meaning bombless night.

BOMBENLOS. Without bombing. (German.) 1941 *New Statesman and Nation* (London), Sept. 6 *Bombenlos* requires no diaeresis on the second *o.*

BOMPHLET. A propaganda pamphlet dropped by air in enemy territory. 1939 *Everybody's Weekly* (London), Nov. 4 *Bomphlets,* coined by Mr. A. P. Herbert, our leading word expert, describes the leaflets dropped over Germany by the R.A.F.

BOMPHLETEER. An airman dropping propaganda in enemy territory. 1941 Kettering *Leader and Guardian,* Oct. 3 *Bomphleteer* was the term applied to airmen engaged on the pamphlet raids in the early days of this war.

BROWNED OFF. Satiated, fed up, wearied. 1941 London *Daily Sketch,* Nov. 12 *Browned off* coined by the R.A.F., meaning fed up, is now in general use.[16]

CANARY. A gas-mask. (See *dickey-bird.*)

CHATTER-BUG. A civilian who spreads military information. 1940 London *Sunday Dispatch,* May 26 (headline) Mr. Harold Nicolson, M.P., wants anti-rumour clubs to stop *chatter-bugs.* 1940 London *Star,* May 29 *Chatter-bug* was coined by Mr. Harold Nicolson, Parliamentary Secretary to the Ministry of Information.

CHINESE DRAGON. An aerial mine. 1941 London *Daily Mail,* July 31 A nickname given to aerial mines, which make sharp explosions like firework crackers, is *Chinese dragons.*

CIVIDIGGER. A civilian engaged in transforming flower-beds or lawns into vegetable gardens. 1940 Headline in the London *Daily Express,* July 6.

COLONEL BLIMP. A character in cartoons by David Low, used to designate any elderly, stupid and highly conservative man. 1940 Hector Bolitho in the *Listener* (London), Nov. 28 *Colonel Blimp* has almost taken the place of John Bull, and the cartoons drawn by Low depend for many of their laughs

14. In common usage *toil* was dropped out. Mr. Churchill had used the phrase in a book some time before the war. It is, in fact, old in English.

15. Partridge traces *bolshevik* in its wider sense to 1933.

16. Under date of Aug. 30, 1940, Mrs. Jean Green wrote to me from Hunsur, Mysore, South India: '*To brown off* or *to be browned off* was first heard by me in Army circles at Aldershot in 1932, and when I came out to India later in the year it was also in use in Bangalore. Since then I have used it often, but gave it up a year or two ago, thinking it was overdone and dated. I am sure a great many other civilians have also been using it for a long time.' Partridge traces the use of *browned off* in the Air Force to *c.* 1920, but notes that it was becoming obsolete in 1938. It was revived on the outbreak of World War II.

on the fat, moustached, downright figure of the colonel. *Blimp* goes back to the Winter of 1914, when Horace Short, the well-known aircraft designer, was standing on the steps of the officers' mess at Eastchurch. A violent thunderstorm was threatening just as three small airships flew low over the aerodrome. They seemed to be in a hurry to avoid the storm, and, rippling and rather limp, they floundered lower and lower. Somebody standing next to Short said: 'It is ridiculous to call these things *airships*. Why don't you coin a name for them?' At that moment, Short called the mess waiter and asked for a *blunch*, his own word, used to describe a drink half-way between breakfast and lunch. Hearing the word *blunch*, one of the officers looked up at the limp airships and said: 'Let's call them *blimps*.'

COMMANDO. A task force, usually small, made up of specially trained men. (South African Dutch.) 1941 Oldham *Evening Chronicle and Standard*, April 19 *Commando*, produced by the Boer War, had a short life.[17]

CRUMP. The burst of a heavy shell. (From World War I.) 1940 London *Times Literary Supplement*, Oct. 12 No harm has been done by the enlargement of the descriptive word *crump* from a howitzer shell, as in the last war, to certain loud noises with which the civilian population was not in those days so familiar as it is now.[18]

DECONTAMINATION. The purging of a building or area contaminated by gas. 1940 J. M. Michaelson in the Newcastle *Weekly Chronicle*, March 23 *Decontamination:* Whitehall for cleansing, in reference to gas.

DEGAUSSISATION. The process of demagnetizing a ship to protect it against floating magnetic mines. 1940 *Surrey Comet* (Kingston-on-Thames), March 18 *Degaussisation* is the new science by which a ship is demagnetized and thus made immune against the enemy's treachery in scattering in the open seas his new frightfulness in the shape of the magnetic mine.

DICKY-BIRD. A gas-mask. 1940 *Everybody's Weekly* (London), March 2 Londoners call their masks *dickey-birds, canaries* and *nose-bags.*

E-BOAT. A small German surface warship. (Suggested by *U-boat.*) 1941 Birmingham *Sunday Mercury*, Nov. 23 Words of corrupted meaning which have become commonplace during the conflict. . . . *E-boat* for what isn't *U-boat.*

ERSATZ. A substitute. (German.) 1940 J. M. Michaelson in the Newcastle *Weekly Chronicle*, March 23 *Ersatz, putsch, blitzkrieg*—these are just a few of many words that have been used so frequently and so widely since the war began that they have almost become a part of the English language. 1940 London correspondence of *Irish Independent* (Dublin), April 8 I heard a housewife refusing to have *ersatz* sausages in a provision-store. (See also *blitzkrieg.*)[19]

EVACUATE. To leave a town threatened by air bombardment. 1939 Private communication from Mr. Arthur D. Jacobs, of Manchester, Dec. 16 *To evacuate* was used by the BBC [British Broadcasting Corporation] as an intransitive verb: 'They had *evacuated* into the country.'

EVACUATRIX. A female *evacuee*, which see. 1940 Manchester *Guardian*, Jan. 4 (quoting *English*) An Oxford don complains that he has been visited by a 'formidable *evacuatrix.*'

EVACUEE. A person removed from an area threatened with bombing. 1939

17. The *Shorter Oxford Dictionary*, 1933, traces *commando*, in South African use, to 1834. Its meaning in standard Dutch is a word of command.

18. Partridge says that *crump* was English school-boy slang for a hard hit or fall so long ago as *c.* 1850. It was apparently borrowed by the English soldiers in World War I, and revived for civilian use in World War II.

19. *Ersatz* was used by the British soldiers in World War I to designate a temporary sweetheart, and hence, by extension, a prostitute.

Worthing *Herald,* Oct. 6 *Evacuee* is a verbal abortion. 1939 The Rev. F. H. J. Newton in the London *Times,* Oct. 14, 1938 Where are we going to stop if *evacuee* is accepted as good English? Is a terrible time coming in which a woman, much dominated by her husband, will be called a *dominee?* Will she often be made a *humiliee* by his rough behaviour and sometimes *prostree* with grief after an unsought quarrel? Must sensitive people suffer the mutilation of their language until they die and are ready to become *cremees?* 1939 *Western Evening Herald* (Plymouth), Oct. 28 *Evacuees* has a dreadfully alien and official sound, and the novelty of the word is as uncomfortable as new paint. 1939 Private communication from Mr. Arthur D. Jacobs, of Manchester, Dec. 16 Everyone now talks of *evacuees,* a word which, having received the government's imprimatur by the use of it by the Earl of Munster in the House of Lords, is now standard English. It was not accepted without protest. Lionel Hale appealed in the London *News-Chronicle* for substitutes, and received among others: *pilgrims, shelterers, sojourners, refugees, war guests, 'Itler's orphans.* A. P. Herbert, I think, suggested *movers.* 1939 Frank North in the *Yorkshire Post* (Leeds), Dec. 21 Letters are still arriving from readers who detest the word *evacuees.* A doctor writes: 'Surely the evacuation is an exodus; the *evacuee* an *exodist.* If these were adopted we should be referring within a week to the *evacuees* as *exos.*' A light-hearted reader writes from York: 'There is a simple, charming, little word ready to our lips, which fills the bill. These dear children are dumped upon us, and he or she who is dumped is a *dumpee.* But *dumpee,* you object, is not a pretty word! I am with you, but spell it *dumpie* and it strikes quite another chord.' A Guiseley man insists that *agisters*—the name given to cattle which a farmer puts out to someone else's land to feed—would be better. 1940 *Kentish Independent* (Woolwich), Jan. 4 We are all searching for a substitute for *evacuee. Removee* is the most obvious alternative, though open to most of the objections by which *evacuee* was condemned. *Migrant* might be used, or its American equivalent, *transient,* but we know them best as adjectives. The word of Mr. [A. P.] Herbert's choice, *scatterer* . . . , would quickly degenerate into derogatory slang.

FINN. Used as an adjective instead of *Finnish.* 1939 Private communication from Mr. Arthur D. Jacobs, of Manchester, Dec. 16 *Finn* is used as an adjective. *Finn* Pact (London *Daily Mail* poster), *Finn* Frontier (*Daily Express* poster), *Finn* Soil (*News-Chronicle* headline).

FIREBLITZED. Of an area devastated by air bombardment. 1940 London *Daily Express,* Dec. 31 Sir George Wilkinson toured the *fireblitzed* area last night.

FLAK. Anti-aircraft fire. (German.) 1941 *News of the World* (London), April 20 Our airmen always use the Germans' word for anti-aircraft fire—*flak.* It is a contraction of three German words which, translated, mean aircraft defence cannon. 1941 *New Statesman and Nation* (London), Sept. 6 *Flak* is the German abbreviation of *Fliegerabwehrkanone.*[20]

FLARE-BLITZ. A shower of flares from enemy airplanes. 1940 London *Daily Express,* Dec. 13 (headline) Nazis make *flare-blitz.*

FLITTER. One who sleeps away from home to escape air alarms. 1941 Plymouth *Western Evening Herald,* June 11 Under the new registration for civil defense duties *flitters* are deemed to be resident in the city.

FRIDAY. A catch-word. 1940 A. G. Thornton in the London *Star,* May 15 The new catchwords mean nothing to a foreigner. Take *Friday,* as invented by Tommy Handley. *'Friday!'* snaps somebody. And the reply is *'Friday.'* What does it mean? Just nothing. That's why we laugh.

20. A derivative, *flak-happy,* apparently suggested by *slap-happy,* appeared in 1943. It was used to designate the mental confusion of an airman exposed to severe *flak.*

GASKET. A covering for a *gas-mask.* 1939 *Everybody's Weekly* (London), June 4 In place of that clumsy term, *gas-mask case,* why not the word *gasket?* 1940 *Midland Counties Express* (Wolverhampton), Jan. 20 Instead of *gas-mask cases* people are talking about *gaskets.*

GOOFER. One who fails to seek shelter during an air-raid. (From the American *goof.*) 1941 London *Daily Mail,* July 31 *Goofers* is the term applied to people who ignore orders to seek shelter during raids, but stand out in the streets gaping up at the bombers.

GUINEA-PIG. A person evacuated, or a soldier billeted. 1939 Manchester *Daily Dispatch,* Oct. 10 'We are known here as the *guinea-pigs,*' writes a Civil servant who has been evacuated to the West of England, 'and we are being treated locally like those tailless rodents.' 1940 Manchester *Evening News,* July 16 I toured a part of Manchester in which every other house seems to be teeming with *guinea-pigs,* the nickname for the men [*i.e.,* soldiers] because the billeting allowances are about a guinea.

GUSSIE. A barrage balloon. 1939 London *Sunday Dispatch,* Oct. 8 *Gussie* is one of the vast fraternity of barrage balloons guarding Manchester. In addition there are *Percy, Bella, Matilda, Marmaduke, Pie-face* and a host of others.

HOME GUARD. Local defense volunteers. 1940 London *Times Literary Supplement,* Oct. 12 Mercifully, the title of *Home Guard* has prevented any wide expansion of *L.D.V.* into *Long Denture Volunteers.* (See also *L.D.V.*)

HOWLING HORACE. See *Moaning Minnie.*

HURRICANE. To attack with *Hurricane* planes. 1940 London *Daily Express,* Nov. 12 (headline) 13 Italian Raiders *Hurricaned.*

I THENGYOW. A catch-phrase, for use in unpleasant situations. 1940 A. G. Thornton in the London *Star,* May 15 Arthur Askey and his pal Richard ('Stinker') Murdoch [music-hall performers] gave us *I thengyow.* That is what the boys say in France when a shell drops unpleasantly near or machine-guns rattle around. The Nazis would not know when to say it, even if they knew how to say it. Nazis can't laugh. They only know how to sneer.

JERRY. A German soldier. 1941 Southampton *Southern Daily Echo,* March 26 Last time the enemy was generally called the *Hun* by the people at home, and *Jerry* by the soldiers. The latter is the term which remains in use in the present war.

JITTERBUG. A nervous person. (Borrowed from the American term, but changed in meaning.) 1939 Robert Lynd in the London *News Chronicle,* March 18 Even Cabinet ministers inflict barbarities on the language, as we saw recently when one of them introduced the word *jitterbug* from America. 1940 London *Star,* May 29 People in Britain who were inclined to panic last September were called *jitterbugs* by Mr. Neville Chamberlain, though this was the name originally coined in America for ultra-modern dancers. 1940 Lancashire *Daily Post* (Preston), June 6 People in Britain who were inclined to panic were called *jitterbugs* by Sir Samuel Hoare.

LARGE LUMPS. An interjection of displeasure. 1940 A. G. Thornton in the London *Star,* May 15 Other interjections to indicate displeasure are *'Large lumps!'* and *'Very sweet, very tasty.'*

LEBENSRAUM. Living space. (German.) 1940 William Hickey in the London *Daily Express,* Feb. 12 *Lebensraum, fuehrer, gauleiter* are tolerated—aliens at large. 1940 J. M. Michaelson, in the Newcastle *Weekly Chronicle,* March 23 *Lebensraum* has a mysticism about it which could never become attached to the plain English words *living space.* 1940 London correspondence of *Irish Independent* (Dublin), April 8 I heard a cockney politely requesting a fellow-passenger to give him *lebensraum* in a bus.

L.D.V. Local Defence Volunteers. 1940 Portsmouth *Evening News,* Sept. 23 *Local Defence Volunteers* are now ***Home Guards.***

LOG-BOOK. A record of watches stood by fire-watchers. 1941 Plymouth *Western Evening Herald,* June 11 Watchers will sign a *log-book,* which will be checked each night.

LORD HAW-HAW. Nickname given to a broadcaster (in English) from Hamburg. 1939 William Hickey in the London *Daily Express,* Nov. 22 Of many words and phrases originally coined in this office which have later been adopted generally, . . . *Lord Haw-Haw* [is] another. 1940 London *Star,* July 10 The best invention of the war is *Lord Haw-Haw.* It was newspaper made, and brilliant.

MACON. See quotations. 1939 William Hickey in the London *Daily Express,* Nov. 22 We are flattered to see that *macon* has now been adopted by other newspapers as a name for mutton bacon. This is only the latest of many words and phrases originally coined in this office which have later been used generally. 1940 London correspondence of *Irish Independent* (Dublin), April 8 The word *macon,* seriously used for cured mutton, is cynically applied by housewives to out-of-date bacon.

MARY ANN. A captive balloon used for defense against aircraft. 1940 Portsmouth *Evening News,* Sept. 23 Sometimes *Mary Ann* is *Lazy Lizzie, Jumbo* or *Bertha.*

MIND MY BIKE. A catch-phrase. 1940 A. G. Thornton in the London *Star,* May 15 Jack Warner[21] gave us *Mind my bike.* It is very popular for all occasions, and only the ignorant German, if he understood, would look round for the bicycle.

MISS THE BUS. To miss an opportunity, or make a mistake. 1940 Manchester *Evening News,* May 22 Neville Chamberlain was responsible for *miss the bus,* which he described the Germans as having done when they invaded Norway.

MOANING MINNIE. An air-alarm siren. 1940 London *Times Literary Supplement,* Oct. 12 *Moaning Minnie* or *Howling Horace* are not bad for the sirens (perhaps they, in their new-spoken form of *sireens,* might count as a war word).

NAFFY. The Navy, Army and Air Force Institute. (From the initial letters of the words.) 1940 Portsmouth *Evening News,* Sept. 23 *Naffy* is for *N.A.A.F.I.*—the Navy, Army and Air Force Institute.

NOSE-BAG. A gas-mask. (See *dickey-bird.*)

ORGANISE. To acquire illicitly. (German.) 1941 *New Statesman and Nation* (London), Sept. 6 *Organise* has been current in the German form, *organisieren,* with exactly the same sense, for many years.

PANZER. Armor. (German.) 1941 *News of the World* (London), April 20 We are beginning to speak of *panzer* divisions, and many people assume that the word is German for *panther.* It simply means armored.

PARASHOOTER or PARASHOT. A defense volunteer trained to deal with parachute troops of the enemy. 1940 London *Star,* May 29 *Parashooter* was coined by the *Star.* 1940 London *Daily Express,* May 17 More than a quarter of a million men applied for enrolment as *parashots* within 24 hours. 1940 London *Star,* July 10 *Parashots* fills a want, but is an uneasy word. It has a certain lack of dignity.

PARASPOTTER. A *parashooter,* which see. 1940 Baltimore *Evening Sun,* June 21 (quoting a headline in the Baltimore *Sun*) Britain has 400,000 *paraspotters* ready to fight parachutists.

PARATROOPS. Soldiers trained for parachute duty. 1940 London *Daily Express,* May 17 (headline) 250,000 *Paratroops.* 1943 H. J. Rose in the Edinburgh *Scotsman,* Sept. 2 Words like *paratroops* may not be elegant, but they are intelligible and logical; in this case, a characteristically English telescoping of a clumsy phrase, *parachute-using troops.*[22]

---

21. Apparently a music-hall or radio performer.

22. Many other words in *para-* were invented by newspaper columnists and headline-writers, *e.g., paraspy* (London *Daily Express,* Sept. 10, 1943), and *parapup* (a dog

POOL. A reservoir of supplies. 1940 J. M. Michaelson in the Newcastle *Weekly Chronicle,* March 23 The war has given us special meanings of a number of words already in use—*pool* (for *pool-butter, -petrol,* etc.)

QUISLING. A citizen of a German-occupied country who took the German side. (Norwegian, from the name of Major Vidkun *Quisling,* the head of the Norwegian Nazi party.) 1940 London *Daily Express,* May 11 Two thousand *Quislings* had been rounded up by Thursday night. 1940 Manchester *Evening News,* May 22 Major *Quisling,* the betrayer of Norway, has given us one of the first new words of the war. 1940 London *Star,* July 10 The Norwegian traitor was cursed with a name which by its very sound conveyed all the odious, greasy wickedness of the man. 1940 London *Times Literary Supplement,* Oct. 12 A lovely new word with all sorts of subtle connotations. 1940 Manchester *Guardian,* Oct. 19 So far the most significant and valuable addition in this war has been *Quisling.* Will there be a verb, *to quisle?*

RAFF. To shell, bomb or otherwise maul. (From *R.A.F.,* Royal Air Force.) 1940 A. J. King in the London *Daily Mail,* Aug. 28 There's surely a rousing neologism in this—*to raff* the Nazis instead of the old *strafing Fritz.*

REBILLETABLE. Eligible for assignment to a new evacuation billet. 1940 Manchester *Guardian,* Jan. 4 (quoting *English*) Children who leave their billets are informed officially that they are not *rebilletable.*

R.N.V.S.R. The Royal Naval Volunteer Supplementary Reserve. 1940 Portsmouth *Evening News,* Sept. 23 A cumbersome title. Soon the public became so accustomed to the initials that the full name is seldom used.

ROOF-SPOTTER. A lookout for enemy aircraft. 1940 London *Times Literary Supplement,* Oct. 12 The watcher of the skies who, standing on the roof, spots the enemy planes that desire to remove the roof he stands on. . . . One of the new war words.

ROTA. A tour of duty, as of a *fire-watcher.* 1941 Plymouth *Western Evening Herald,* June 11 *Rotas* of duty will be arranged by the area commander.[23]

RUHR. To destroy by air bombardment. 1943 London *Daily Express,* June 20 Even the total destruction of the Ruhr is not necessarily going to convince the Germans that they must shoot Hitler now, or be ruined and *ruhred* from end to end of their country.

SCROUNGE. To pilfer. 1938 London *Star,* Dec. 2 It is amazing how much *scrounging* goes on. The Southern Railway gave a staggering figure for the specially dimmed bulbs which had been stolen (I beg pardon, *scrounged*) from their carriages in the first weeks of the war. 1938 Birmingham *Sunday Mercury,* Dec. 10 A heritage from the last war is *scrounger,* meaning a 'gatherer of useful trifles.'[24]

SEAVACUATION. An evacuation overseas. 1940 London *Daily Express,* June 20 (headline) 20,000 children in first *seavacuation.*

SCUTTLE. To sink. (Borrowed from sea terminology.) 1940 A. G. Thornton in the London *Star,* May 15 A favourite way of settling an argument is to exclaim, 'You go and scuttle yourself!'[25]

SHELTERITIS. Rheumatism. 1940 Advertisement in the Liverpool *Echo,* Nov. 29 *Shelteritis* is a dangerous form of rheumatism.

SHIVER-SISTER. A scared civilian. 1940 London *Daily Express,* July 1 The

---

carried in an airplane, *News of the World* (London), Aug. 29, 1943), but most of them died quickly.

23. The *NED* traces *rota* in this sense to 1673, but it was rarely encountered before its revival in World War I.

24. Partridge says it was soldiers' slang in World War I, but became 'fairly general' in 1930 or thereabout.

25. In the nautical sense the *NED* traces *to scuttle* to 1642.

armed forces must feel behind them a solid wall of national will power, and not a frightened troupe of *shiver-sisters* and *chatterbugs*. (Ascribed to Harold Nicolson, M.P.)

SITZKRIEG. A dilatory war. 1940 *Newsweek* (New York), March 4 In the war of words last week the British Royal Air Force scored a direct pun on the word *blitzkrieg:* a RAF memorandum distributed to the press said that because of the slow progress of the *sitzkrieg* the Allies have had time to train pilots and otherwise develop their air program to the last degree of efficiency.

SIREEN. An air alarm siren. 1940 Portsmouth *Evening News*, Sept. 23 The hooters designed to warn us of approaching enemy aircraft were named *sirens*, but one often hears them called *sireens*. It would appear that the word *siren* sounded too clipped and harsh. (See also *Moaning Minnie*.)

SIREN-SUIT. A dress for wear in an air-raid shelter. 1940 Manchester *Guardian*, Jan. 4 (quoting *English*) Ladies' dress-shops advertise *siren-suits* for the air-raid shelter.

SKELTER. An air-raid shelter. 1939 *Everybody's Weekly* (London), June 4 For an abbreviation of *air-raid shelter* no word could be more expressive than *skelter*. 1940 *Midland Counties Express* (Wolverhampton), Jan. 20 *Air-raid shelters* are affectionately known as *skelters*.

S.O.S. A night without air alarms. 1941 Oldham *Evening Chronicle and Standard*, April 19 [The Germans] use *S.O.S.*, not in its international shipping sense, but as made up of the initials of *schlaf ohne sirenen*, sleep without sirens.

SPITFIRE. To shoot down an enemy plane. (From *Spitfire*, the name of an English fighting-plane.) 1940 London *Daily Express*, June 19 (headline) Three Junkers *spitfired*.

STRANGER. An enemy plane. 1941 London *Daily Mail*, July 31 Enemy planes are gently referred to as *strangers*.

STUKA. A dive-bomber. (German, from *sturz*, a crash or downfall, and *kampf*, a fight.)

TELEFOOTLER. See quotation. 1941 Herne Bay *Press*, March 1 A word for those selfish people who indulge in idle gossip and time-wasting talks on the telephone. (Title of a film released early in 1941 by the Ministry of Information.)

TRIPHIBIAN. See *triphibious*.

TRIPHIBIOUS. Involving the Army, Navy and Air Force. 1941 (first used in a speech in the House of Commons by Leslie Hore-Belisha, formerly Secretary for War; revived in a speech by Herbert Morrison, Aug. 26, 1943). 1943 H. J. Rose in the Edinburgh *Scotsman*, Aug. 30 *Triphibious*. . . . has no etymology, it obeys no rules of composition or derivation, it is of no language. Therefore it may mean just what Mr. Morrison chooses it to mean. 1943 Winston Churchill in a radio broadcast at Quebec, Aug. 31 He [Lord Louis Mountbatten] is what I venture to call a complete *triphibian*. 1943 Edinburgh *Scotsman*, Sept. 1 Analogy, even if false, is a powerful force in the development of language, and from a biological point of view *triphibious* and *triphibian* can be explained, if not excused. 1943 John Orr in the *Edinburgh Scotsman*, Sept. 1 *Triphibious* . . . is a spontaneous formation prompted by the word *amphibious*. . . . The semantic kernel, the part which vehicles the main portion of the meaning, is thus obviously *-phib-*. What could be more natural, or, from the functional as opposed to the purely philological point of view, more legitimate, than to use this radical and its suffix *-ious* for the creative purposes, and to replace the prefix *am-* by another numerical prefix, *tri-*, a perfectly English prefix, because of its use in such well-worn words as *tricycle, tripartite*, etc.? 1943 London *Times*, Sept. 2 Mr. Morrison has got away with it. . . . A new word that catches on, or can be forced on, is no monster; it is a happy invention. *Triphibian* therefore may now join *happidrome, sportsdrome* and *normalcy*. 1943 Warren Derry in the London *Times*, Sept. 4 *Triphibious* . . . was used in 1941 by Mr. Hore-Belisha in a speech urging a more vigorous prosecution of the war, and occasioned a protest in your correspondence col-

umns. 1943 Victor McClure in the London *Daily Telegraph,* Sept. 8 To find a word carrying the sense at which *triphibious* aims is not easy. *Tribian* or *tribious* may be right, but neither is pretty if properly pronounced. . . . *Trielemental* might serve, but requires the un-English diaeresis or a hateful hyphen to keep the unthinking right.

U-BOAT. A German submarine. (German *U-boot,* abbrev. for *unterseeboot,* under-seas-boat). 1940 J. M. Michaelson in the Newcastle *Weekly Chronicle,* March 23 Of the German words familiar in the Great War a surprisingly small number have survived 20 years of peace. *U-boat,* short for a word which may be translated as *underwater-boat,* found its way permanently into the language.

UNEXPLODED. An unexploded bomb. 1940 William Hickey in the London *Daily Express,* Nov. 13 *Unexploded* is now used as a noun. 'A man went to a police-station to report an *unexploded* in his garden,' writes a Midland reader.

VACKIE, VACK, or VACKY. Abbreviation of *evacuee,* which see. 1939 London *Daily Telegraph,* Oct. 4 Evacuated children are known in some places as *vacks* or *vackies,* but it is a point on which the countryside is not yet of one mind. 1939 *Western Evening Herald* (Plymouth), Oct. 28 The word for the evacuated children is *vackies.* 1939 *Everybody's Weekly* (London), Nov. 4 *Vackies* . . . means those evacuated from our cities.

VERY SWEET, VERY TASTY. An interjection of displeasure. (See *large lumps.*)

WARPHAN. A war orphan. 1938 *Friends Intelligencer* (Philadelphia), Oct. 8 A new English word, *warphans,* has been coined in China. A shortening of the words *war orphans,* it describes the condition of more than a million Chinese children whose parents have been killed or have disappeared during the struggle with Japan. (Dr. Louise Pound says in *American Speech,* Oct., 1939, p. 190, that *warphan* was not coined in China, but was 'used rather widely in the later years of the World War.' It is not listed by Partridge.)

WHISKODA. Bottled whiskey and soda. 1943 Lee McCardell in a cable to the Baltimore *Sun,* Oct. 17 Each bottle contains five one-third nips of alleged whiskey, with enough soda to fill the remaining space. Properly corked, it will keep for three months, its manufacturers say.

WHITEHALL. The jargon or practise of the War Office in Whitehall; usually derogatory.

WIND UP, to have the. To be alarmed. 1940 London *Star,* July 10 It was the flying-men who gave us the one word which has survived undimmed from the last war. *Wind up* seemed to say so exactly what it meant that it forged its way into a position from which twenty years of peace has not ousted it, and the new war has confirmed it.[26]

26. Partridge says that it was taken into soldiers' slang in 1915, and may be a souvenir of 'the early days of aviation, when wind, if at all strong, precluded flight.'

ANGLO-FRENCH ETYMOLOGIES

LEO SPITZER
The Johns Hopkins University

PROFESSOR Charles H. Livingston has reminded us[1] of a remark by Sir James Murray to the effect that English words whose history is obscure may eventually be explained by an examination of modern French patois; Mr. Livingston has given an excellent illustration of the truth of this statement by tracing the origin of Eng. *funk* 'to flinch or shrink from fear' to an O.Fr. *fernicle, funicle* 'wild, mad' (= Lat. **phrenicus*) that has been preserved in modern patois.

I should like to go even further than Murray and state that English etymologists should pay more attention to the achievements in general of French lexicography during the last thirty years. After all, the major part of the *NED* could rely, for the Romance portion of the English vocabulary, only on Diez, Littré, the *Dictionnaire général,* Godefroy, and Körting; nor has the Supplement of 1933 brought up to date the information available in such works as Meyer-Lübke's *Romanisches etymologisches Wörterbuch* (*REW*), von Wartburg's *Französisches etymologisches Wörterbuch* (*FEW*), Gamillscheg's *Etymologisches Wörterbuch der französischen Sprache,* Tobler-Lommatzsch's *Altfranzösisches Wörterbuch,* Gilliéron-Edmont's *Atlas linguistique de la France,* Sainéan's *Le Langage parisien,* and Huguet's *Dictionnaire de la langue française du XVI^e siècle.* The comparison which has been made between French dialectology and the data of O.Fr. dictionaries has given us a broader insight into the riches of the Thesaurus linguae franco-gallicae (cf. precisely the case of *fernicle*): the *hapaxes* in Godefroy can often serve as precious links between Latin and the patois;[2] the popularity of an O.Fr. word can be proved by its survival in the patois; new semantic and phonetic developments in patois are seen to be latent in O.Fr. word usages—in short, our knowledge of the ramifications of the Latin word-families in French has been expanded and deepened.

The Romance philologians themselves have paid only scant attention to the survival of O.Fr. words in English: since 1886, when Dietrich Behrens published his work on the phonetics of French loan-words in English, there has been practically no major contribution to this field;[3]

1. *Modern Language Notes,* 55: 266 (1940).

2. It may happen that a French word apparently limited in use may come to have great importance for English (the reverse is also true); E. J. Dobson in his inspiring article in *Medium Ævum,* 9: 124 (1940), points out the very few attestations of O.Fr. *emboié,* from which is derived English *boy.*

3. The treatises on Anglo-Norman by Vising, Studer, and Miss Pope are not pri-

and the rare references to English words in the *REW,* as well as those, considerably more frequent, in the *FEW,* take into account only the words whose origins have been agreed upon by English scholars. This situation may well be called desperate, since neither English nor Romance scholars are displaying any particular interest in clarifying those words the etymology of which is unknown. The *NED* is satisfied in some cases to suggest a probable French origin without specifying the exact etymon; again it states bluntly 'Etymology unknown'—when a more detailed investigation would easily show a French origin. As for the Romance etymologists who disregard the survival of French words in English, they are prevented thereby from treating exhaustively the biology of French word-families. It seems to me that the time has come to bring to an end the mutual tolerance of passivity between the two groups of scholars, and I feel that it can be safely predicted that the next few years will see greater progress in the Anglo-French than in the Anglo-Saxon portion of the English vocabulary—which last has been sufficiently studied. The series of articles that I shall present here is only a modest beginning along this line.

There are certain general conclusions in regard to this task of connecting English words with O.Fr. and French dialects, which may be stated at the outset. First, a relative boldness is necessary and desirable on the part of the etymologist; there need be no hesitation in assuming either the existence of unattested French forms, provided that these conform to the general rules of French word-formation, or unattested additional meanings of a French word, so long as these illustrate the general trends of semantic development. For the vocabulary of Anglo-Norman (of which so many texts have been lost, or remained unedited) is not known to us so thoroughly that any assumption of an Anglo-Norman derivative must depend upon whether or not it has been, by chance, attested; Middle French in particular has been studied much too little for us to be able to depend upon the information of our vocabularies—as a matter of fact, there is no vocabulary of Middle French. Nor should the etymologist hesitate to bridge gaps of centuries or more; it is quite possible that an English word, attested perhaps for the first time in 1700 as a slang term, may have lived for centuries previous an underground life.

This 'boldness' which I recommend may apply also to phonetics: we can not expect to find a punctilious application of phonetic laws to

---

marily conceived on a lexicological basis. The work of Brühl, *Untergegangene und veraltete Worte des Französischen im heutigen Englisch* (Halle, 1913), is mostly a compilation of well known etymologies.

words whose past is shrouded in darkness for centuries and which may have undergone many changes between their relatively late attestation in English and their last appearance in O.Fr. vocabularies; we must also take into account the fact that the dynamic accent of English may cause drastic alterations in the unstressed syllables of French words; and finally, in the case of loan-words which remain etymologically unconnected with any word-family in the language that has borrowed them, all sorts of fanciful phonetical alterations may be expected to take place—we must often be satisfied if there is preserved the basic pattern or skeleton of the word (in particular, the stressed syllable and some, though not necessarily all, of the surrounding consonants). And we will never, perhaps, be able to decide in the case of such French loan-words whether it was the fact of their preservation in an uprooted state which exposed them to fanciful alterations ('Verballhornungen,' as the Germans say), or whether they owe their preservation to the fantastic ring which they had for English ears. It often happens that a French word in a particular form or phrase develops separately from the rest of its family, all of which have enjoyed a normal development; its ties with that family have been overlooked only because the possibility of 'petrification in an outlaw-position' has not been considered by etymologists.

Since French was for so long the language of culture in England, the new etyma will for the most part (but by no means exclusively) represent loan-words belonging to the refined and sophisticated vocabulary of the higher social classes: legal and medical terms, words illustrative of psychological refinement and of a highly developed material culture; what Tappolet has called 'luxury loan-words.' We must, however, expect to find that such words will have degenerated in meaning since, typical *gesunkenes Kulturgut,* they came to be popular in classes of society where they could not retain their original connotations but became tinged with the hues of their new cultural (and linguistic)[4] environment. Most interesting is the change of atmosphere entailed by such transplantation; in addition to being 'picturesque,' the Anglo-French words are often colloquial, facetious, slangy.

It will be my practice to repeat, refrain-like, these general statements whenever they come into play in the following studies of particular words. In all cases what I attempt to do is not to discover new texts (either in French or in English) but to link together bits of the enormous material already accumulated in the *NED* and in the French dictionaries;

4. A typical example of the latter case has been discovered by Professor Gillet; see his article on *flair* in *American Speech,* 12: 247-257 (Dec. 1937).

in my opinion such combining activity is all that is necessary at this stage of scientific development.[5]

1. *Bludgeon*

The *NED* says of this word: 'Not attested before the 18th cent., origin unknown'; and indeed the attempted explanations, which it quotes in small print, are not to be accepted. In my opinion *bludgeon* is obviously a borrowing from O.Fr. *boujon* 'grosse flèche dont l'extrémité se terminait par une tête' (in the Rouchi dialect 'échelon, traverses qui tiennent les pieds des chaises,' in O. Picardian 'verrou, cadenas, verge de fer'). Cf. the remarks on the O.Fr. word in *Roman d'Alixandre,* ed. Agar, pp. 96 and 178. The etymological link between the French word for 'arrow' and the English for 'club' must be the idea of an 'end like a head.'[6] The word must be relatively old, since the *-l-,* which has been transposed, shows an archaic retention of the *-l-* pronunciation instead of the regular vocalization before a consonant (**bol*jon > **blo*jon) which already in the *Roland* appears to be on the wane (cf. the hypercorrect *nevuld* = *nevout*); the Italian *bolzone* and Breton *bulzun* 'navette,' which are borrowed from French, show the same *-l-,* as do French loan-words in English such as *quilt, pilfer,* and *bulge.*

For the etymology of Fr. *boujon* the *FEW* offers a Frankish **bultjo* 'bolt.' It seems evident to me, however, that this Germanic etymology must be abandoned for our forms in *-z-* and *-ž-,* and must be replaced by a derivative from Gaulish *bulga* 'leather bag' > Fr. *bouge* (cf. *bougette* 'leather bag' > Eng. *budget,* borrowed after *-l-* had become vocalized), which means also 'partie concave ou bombée d'un objet' (attested since the 12th cent.), 'ventre d'une futaille,' 'courbé' (bois), 'émoussé,' 'bombé' (*FEW* s.v. *bulga*); cf. the Eng. loan-word *to bulge* 'to form a protuberance, swell out.'

2. *Cabrie* 'antelope'

In his review (*Language,* 18: 152) of Criswell, *Lewis and Clark: Linguistic Pioneers,* Mr. Marckwardt writes:

> The ascription of *cabrie* to dialectal French origin rather than Spanish seems a shrewd guess, although it should have been fortified by precise information about the particular French dialects in which the word occurs.

---

5. Other series of Anglo-French etymologies will appear in *Modern Language Notes, Studies in Philology,* and the *Journal of English and Germanic Philology;* in the latter (1942-3) there have appeared articles on *curmudgeon* and *conundrum-quandary,* in the former (1942) one on *dismal.*

6. In Baltimore a synonym for *bludgeon* is *espantoon.* In the 'Down the Spillway' column of the Baltimore *Sun,* a question of its origin was raised; I pointed out in a letter the Fr. *esponton* 'demi-pique,' 'half-pike' (> Ital. *spuntone*).

I believe that Professor Criswell's assumption is correct. As for the area occupied by dialectal Fr. *cabri* (and *cabrit*), one need only to consult the most complete repertory for French dialect words that we have, the *FEW* s.v. *capra* 2.29 and 296, where we find a multitude of *chevri, chabri, capriz, gabri* and *cabri* forms in the meaning 'kid.' The last named is attested in Périgord, Poitou, Berry, Grenoble, Somme, Aine, etc., and evidently illustrates the Southern development of the nexus *-pr-* > *-br-*, a phenomenon that is explained in the East by the particular structure of Franco-Provençal, and in the West by the fact that Poitevin was at the beginning of the Middle Ages a Southern dialect; cf. Gamillscheg in *Hauptfragen der Romanistik (Becker-Festschrift)*, p. 51, note 2. Moreover, von Wartburg does not fail to mention Mod.Fr. *cabri* 'variété de chèvre à poils ras et sans cornes, dans les colonies' (first attested by Larousse 1867), which leads directly to the English *cabrie*. The Latin basis is a *caprītus* with a diminutive suffix; this is attested in the Lex Salica and is represented in Gallo-Romania from Lorraine to Languedoc, and in Catalonian.

3. *Epergne*

On the word *epergne* (variants *epergn, epargne*) the *NED* has the following to say:

> [perh. a corruption of *F. épargne* saving, economy; cf. quot. 1779 ['in the centre . . . stood a sumptuous *epargne*, filled (with sweetmeats)']; but there is no evidence to show how the word acquired its present meaning]. A centre-dish, or centre ornament for the dinner table, now often in a branched form, each branch supporting a small dish for desert or the like, or a vase for flowers. (From our quots. it appears that the earlier use was chiefly to hold pickles.) [e.g. in the first attestation in 1761: 'Grand Espergnes filled with fine Pickles'].

Skeat in his etymological dictionary has tried to bridge the semantic gap between the French word and the English in the following manner:

> It [the French word] seems to have been applied to the epergne from the manner of its ornamentation; Cotgrave has *taillé d'espargne*, cut with sparing work, the incutting being filled with enamell, and the work set out, or appearing among it, in gold.

But if the technical expression *taillé d'espargne* is really the explanation, it would seem more likely that the table centre-dish would have derived its name from the 'sparing work' which hollowed out a place for the various sweetmeats, etc. (as with the mosaic-like *rivieras* used in Europe for flowers).

I would suggest, however, a completely different explanation—based on the combined evidence from French dialectology and from *Wörter- und Sachenforschung:* I believe that the basis for our English word is a French *épargne* in the meaning 'a saving device' which was applied to a

candle-stick. One may be immediately reminded of the English expression 'save-all,' which, according to the *NED,* was applied to 'a contrivance for holding a candle-end in a candlestick while burning so that it may burn to the end. A common form is a pan with a projecting pin in the centre on which the candle end is fixed.' The same association of ideas is illustrated in German, where we find the Low Germ. *profitje* and the High Germ. *profitchen,* glossed 'Lichtsparer' by the *DWb* s.v. *Profit* (the corresponding French word *binet* is still in 1900 translated by Sachs-Villatte '*Profitchen,* Lichtknecht,' *faire binet* 'auf dem Lichtknecht aufbrennen, fig. sparen');[7] we have also, especially in Swiss dialects, a *profit(er)li* or *profit* (along with *Hüserli, Hüs-halter, Sparerli,* glossed 'Lichthalter' by *Schw. Id.* s.vv.); in Mod. Prov. too we find a *proufeche* (orig. = 'profit') 'binet brûle-tout, ustensile pour faire brûler la chandelle jusqu'au bout' (along with *gasta-tout*). And finally it is in Provençal that we find evidences of the same semantic development of the French word-family *épargne:* Mistral lists an *espargne, espargno* 'épargne, économie,' 'binet, brûle-tout, bobèche'; *espargneto* 'binet'; and in nearby Saintonge we find (Jônain, *Dict. du pat. saintongais* s.v.): *épargne* 'binet, gâte-tout, brûle-tout.' It is this dialectal form *épargne* = 'candlestick, save-all' (probably more widespread throughout France than our dictionaries of the standard language indicate) which we must accept as the basis of Eng. *epergne.*[8]

This could mean either that Eng. *epergne* was first applied to a certain type of candlestick (the evidence of our dictionaries notwithstanding), or else, that the Fr. *épargne,* before being borrowed by English, had come to be used in reference to a table centre-ornament of the sort described above. In either case we are faced with the development 'candle-stick' > 'arrangement for containing sweetmeats, flowers etc.' (whether this took place in French or in English is not essential). How can such a develop-

7. This meaning seems to me to indicate that the underlying idea of Fr. *binet* also (*faire binet* is attested since 1694, *binet* 'brûle-tout' since 1707) is that of 'economizing' (from **binare* 'to do something the second time' > Fr. *biner* 'donner à la terre une seconde façon, sarcler,' Cancale *rebiner* 'ramasser les petites huîtres abandonées après le triage'; cf. *FEW* s.v. **binare*—von Wartburg is wrong in putting *binet* under *bini* 'two'). As for *bobèche,* the similarity between *bobine* 'spool, bobbin' and *bobèche* (whose outward form is described thus for Pays du Manges, Maine-et-Loire: 'éteignoir emmanché au bout d'une longue tige en bois, autour de laquelle est enroulée une mince bougie . . .'; cf. the Mid.Fr. *bobaiche* 'guêtre qui couvre le soulier') suggests the transfer 'spool' > 'candle spun around the pin'; contrary to what von Wartburg says, the suffix *-èche* does not make any difficulty; it is the *-eccus* variant of *-accus, -occus,* etc.

8. The phonetic form of *epergne* shows that the borrowing must have taken place relatively late—i.e. after *-s-* before surds had been lost in French (this was not the case at the time of the Conquest), and after the Mid.Fr. evolution of *-e-* + *r* + cons. > *-a-* had begun to take place (*asparagus* > *asperge,* Pop.Fr. *Montpernasse,* etc.).

ment be explained? In the first definition which the *Larousse du XX^e siècle* gives of *bobèche,* a synonym of *épargne* ('disque de verre ou de métal, à rebords, percé au milieu, que l'on adapte à un bougeoir, etc., pour empêcher la cire ou la bougie de couler plus bas') we are given a description of what is probably the third stage in the modification of form undergone by the contrivance known as 'save-all,' *profitje, espargne,* etc.: first there was the 'pin' as the basic saving device; later this was affixed to a pan and finally, in order better to prevent the dripping of the wax, this pan was fitted with an up-turned brim (a *rebord*): in this way the pan assumes the shape of a receptacle. And finally we must imagine a type of multiple candle-stick, fitted with branches, each supporting an individual candle-holder of this 'receptacle' shape. At this point the word *épargne,* retained throughout the course of these modifications, could easily have been applied to any ornament of the same general shape—regardless of what the receptacles contained. Now today even the branch-like shape is no longer necessarily implied by the word *epergne,* but this must represent a still later (a fifth!) development; the *NED,* it is true, would seem to suggest that the branches represent a modern development (*'now* often in a branched form'), but there can be no question but that this branched form is of long standing: according to evidence supplied by the art department of the Enoch Pratt Library of Baltimore, most of the reproductions of 18th century English *epergnes* show this general shape. And, what is particularly interesting, two of these represent a combination 'epergne' + candle-holder! The magazine *Antiques* (Nov. 1930, p. 408), under the heading, 'Epergne, cut-class (Eng. c. 1785),' has an illustration of an eight-branched ornament of cut-glass; from the four upper branches are suspended tiny basket-like receptacles, intended evidently to hold sweetmeats, etc., but the four lower receptacles, affixed firmly at right angles to the branches, have rather the shape of candle-holders: they are in the form of a tiny plate in the middle of which is a 'pin' with spreading edges. Of a still earlier date is the ornament described (*Antiques,* April 1936, p. 171) as 'English Silver Epergne (1736)' (incidentally this date precedes by 25 years the first attestation in the *NED* of our word); again we have an eight-branched arrangement, four of the branches supporting shallow silver platters, the other four, individual candle-holders (each with its 'disque à rebords').[9] If we now turn to

9. An advertisement of the Hutzler department store recently published in the Baltimore *Sun* listed as 'unusual glassware' an 'Epergne to hold both candles and flowers.' This should mean 'an epergne that can hold candles *in addition to flowers*' (i.e. the presence of flower-holders is taken for granted and the candle-holders represent an arbitrary addition). But the architecture of the ornament, as presented by the illustration which accompanied the item, showed that the flower-holders are additional

18th-century France, we find reproductions of center-pieces offering combinations of receptacles and candle-sticks in Max von Boehn, *Rococo* (Berlin, 1923), pp. 468, 474; they were designed by J. A. Meissonnier and Pineau.

Thus the development of the thing, 'candle-stick' > 'center-dish to hold flowers or pickles,' is well documented, and the word *epergne* points to an *épargne,* 'save-all.' We witness in this case an evolution of the 'thing' coupled with remarkable lexicographical conservatism.

4. *Flimsy*

This word is attested in the meaning 'limber, slight, frail, delicate' since about 1700. Of all the etymologies hitherto proposed, more or less tentatively (Welsh *llimsy* 'sluggish'; *flim-flam* + the ending of *tipsy, bumpsy, limpsy;* dialect. Danish *flems, flims* 'skin of the milk'; *film*), none is convincing. There is in French an echo of Greek φλεγμασία 'inflammation' (found in Hippocrates and Aristotle, = φλεγμονή, φλόγωσις), attested as early as the 14th century in Évrard de Conty's *Problèmes d'Aristote,* vid. *flegmasie;* and Godefroy attests also a *fleumasie* in the 16th century. Since φλέγμα (*phlegma*) 'phlegm, mucus' gave an O.Fr. *flieme* (also *fleume, flume*) 'phlegme, phlegmose,' and a popular Mod.Fr. *flemme* 'sluggishness,'[10] it would not be at all difficult to assume the existence in Middle French of a form **fli(e)mesie*[11] with the meaning 'sluggishness, weakness'; from this the Eng. *flimsy* (a word probably much older than the first attestation) could be directly derived. It must have originally been a noun, later developing into an adjective by a transition parallel to that of dialectal *frenzy* 'frolicsome' (Wright)[12]—in which case the development was probably due to the misinterpretation of substantival *-sy* (O.Fr. *-sie* < Gr. *-σις, -σία, frenesie* < φρένησις) as representing *-s* + adjectival *-y* (according to the pattern *ricket(s)–rickety*); such an adjectival ending seems to have invited neologisms which referred jocularly to diseases or defects: *limpsy, tipsy, bumpsy, lackadaisy, tricksy*[13]—and, perhaps, *topsy-*

---

elements: if one stripped the two upper branches which hold the vases, one would have an orthodox three-pronged candlestick.

10. Cf. the statement of Ambroise Paré: 'Le flegme rend l'homme endormy, paresseux et gras.' There is no necessity for admitting an Italianism in the case of the Pop.Fr. *flemme,* as does Dauzat, *Dict. étym.*

11. With *eu-* > *ie-* as in *Teutbold* > *Thiebaut, leopardus* > *liepard; ie-* > *i-* as in *Thiebaud* > *Thibaut, liemier* > *limier.*

12. Though *palsy, dropsy* and *frenzy* were once used to some extent as attributives (of the type *stone wall*), they are not attested as true adjectives (cf. *NED*). However, what happened to *frenzy* in dialectal speech may also have occurred occasionally in standard English as well.

13. The misinterpretation, in the case of *flimsy,* of *-sy* as an adjectival suffix, finds a parallel in the case of *lavish:* this word, originally a substantive (< Fr. *lavace*

turvy (but cf. *NED* for this last word). The parodistic flavor of all these semi-pejorative formations is probably to be explained by the fact that the series of names of illnesses was surrounded by a learned (Greek) atmosphere—against which the popular, the genuine English taste reacted. And this same popular *Sprachgefühl* twisted also the original grammatical and etymological relationships by changing nouns into adjectives, by wrongly relating them to plurals (*tricksy*), by facetiously establishing false relationships with popular words (a person with the *dropsy* = one who 'drops' things easily).

5. *Scoundrel*

Of this word the *NED* says:

> Of unknown origin.
> Derivation from Sc. *Scunner sb.* and *vb.* is inadmissible on phonological grounds; and although *scoundrel* is now vernacular in Scotland . . ., all the early examples of the word are English. The phonetic character of the word suggests a Fr. origin; it might conceivably represent an AF. derivative of *escondre* to abscond, but the late date of its first occurrence is against this supposition.

This first occurrence is dated 1589; the meaning given is 'a mean rascal, a low petty villain.' The *NED* remarks further: 'Now usually with stronger sense: An audacious rascal, one destitute of all moral scruple.'

To my mind the late occurrence of the word offers no difficulty in the way of admitting an Anglo-Fr. etymology (see above, p. 17). I would not, however, propose *escondre* 'to abscond' as the verbal stem from which *scoundrel* (= **escond-erel*) would be a nominal derivative: the semantic shift from 'one who hides (to escape trial and prison?)' to 'scoundrel' is not too likely. Rather I would suggest the other *escondre* (no. 1 in Godefroy) 'to refuse,' which must have to do with *escondire* 'to refuse, reject, cast off' = Lat. **excondicere* (*REW, FEW*).[14] Thus a *scoundrel* (with *-(e)rel* as in *wastrel*) would have originally been 'a piece of refuse, trash, etc.' (= Fr. *le rebut* [*de la société,* etc.]), then mean 'rascal, low petty

'deluge of rain') came to be used as an adjective because of its *-ish* ending, suggesting an adjectival suffix.

14. This *escondre* must be a back-formation from the perfect *escondi(s),* that was created after the disappearance of final *-s* in pronunciation: an *escondi(s)* would then give an *escondre* (= *escondire*) according to the pattern *rendi(s)—rendre* (the perfect *escondi* is attested by G. Cohn, *ZFSL,* Vol. 43, pt. 2, p. 16). In this manner we can also understand the postverbal noun *esconde* 'contredit' (attested once in Godefroy) instead of *escondit* (< **ex-condictum*): *esconde* would be formed directly from *escondre.* (Cohn explains it from **escondir* after the pattern *chois—choisir*). And perhaps the hapax *escon* registered by Godefroy (Aye d'Avignon: *de maint bon garnement furent mis an l'escon*) and which he tentatively interprets as 'libre disposition' could be an **escond,* masc., derived from this same *escondre* 'to refuse': *mis en l'escon* 'discarded,' 'at one's disposal.'

villain.' English *rascal* originally had the very same meaning: 'refuse, scrapings' (Fr. *ra(s)caille* from *rasicare* 'to grate, scrape off').

6. *Sculduddery,* U.S. *Skulduggery*

The *NED* says of this word s.v. *sculduddery:* 'of obscure origin'; 'Jamieson's words ["A term, now used in a ludicrous manner, to denote those causes that come under the judgment of an ecclesiastical court, which respect some breach of chastity"] imply that the word was originally in serious use, but of this there seems to be no evidence.' Yet the first attestation of the word *sculdudrie* (1713) is glossed in this text by 'fornication,' and the text of 1730 clearly supports Jamieson's statement:

If any one be brought *before a presbitery &., to be questioned for sculduddery,* i.e. fornication or adultery.

From 1821 on the word is attested in England in the more general meaning 'obscenity'; as for American usage, the *NED* gives examples of *skulduggery* after 1890 in the meaning '? malversation of public money';[15] Webster gives simply the meaning 'trickery.' Thus, in attempting to explain the origin of the English word, I feel justified in starting from the meaning offered by Jamieson, 'a breach of chastity brought before an ecclesiastical tribunal,' and in considering the other semantic developments and the semi-comic tone of the word prevalent today as secondary.

Since Eng. *culprit,* attested as late as 1678, has revealed itself as a genuine French word, as I shall prove in a forthcoming article in *Modern Language Notes,* we may be allowed to consider *sculduddery,* attested in 1713, as traceable to French origin—and, like *culprit,* a word derived from legal procedure. In O.Fr. we find the verb *esco(u)lo(u)rgier* 'couler, glisser, échapper,' i.e. 'to slip' (= Vulg. Lat. **excollubricare,* cf. *Rom. etym. Wb., Franz. etym. Wb.*), then 'to make a moral slip,' 'to sin (especially with the flesh)'; if we look through the words connected with this stem as listed in Godefroy we find passages from Bible translations such as the following:

> Seit faite la veie de els tenebres et esculurgement (Lib. Ps. XXXIV, 7: fiat via illorum tenebrae et lubricum[16]

---

15. This interpretation of the *NED* is only tentative, and indeed the three examples which it cites are far from being conclusive evidence of any such specific meaning as 'malversation of public funds.' According to the work of M. Schele de Vere entitled *Americanisms* and published eighteen years before the earliest example quoted by the *NED, sculduggery* was popular in the West as a synonym of 'log-rolling,' 'wire-pulling,' 'pipe-laying' ('great skill in this art [of wire-pulling] is facetiously called *sculduggery* in the West,' p. 261)—all of them pejorative terms descriptive of political machinations.

16. *Lubricus, lubricare, lubricitas* had already in classical Latin a moral reference: Tacitus, *tempus lubricum* 'the period of youth exposed to seduction'; in Christian

Tu delivras la meie aneme de mort e mes piez de esculurgement (ib. LV, 13: quoniam eripuisti animam meam de morte, et pedes meos de lapsu).

It is frequent in religious literature:

Li malignes espirs . . . creoit en tant grande gaange estre faite a soi, en combien lo corage de plus saint homme enclinast al *escolorgement de perdition*
Dial. St. Greg.

Car la incarnations n'estoit mie faite tant solement pour la *reparation* de l'humain *escalavorgement*
Vie des Saints

Et il fuient *les escolorgemenz de faire plus granz desloiautez*
Vie et mir. de plus s. confess.

and appears in the obviously 'moralizing' text, *Fables d'Ovide:*

L'ame *escoulourge* de rechief
A duel, a honte et *a meschief.*

Finally, s.v. *escolorjaste* (hapax) we find a passage from the text of 1333, *Lég. dorée,* in which a monk is accused of worldly sin (the suffix is either Gr. *-astēs* or Lat. *-aster*):

.I. moine ligier et escolorjaste estoit à Couloingne la cité ou moustier de S. Pierre. Et quant ce moine fu sourpris de subite mort, les diables l'accusoient et li crioient que il avoit fait *toutes manieres de pechiez.*

Here we have the semantic and social climate in which *sculduddery* must have germed. This passage clearly supports Jamieson's interpretation—as does also the following one cited by Du Cange s.v. *exlex* n°. 3 under *'escalavorgans,* Perditus et dissolutus, vulgo *Libertin': 'Uns Escoliers, qui estoit avant vains et Escalavorgans,* fu faiz chastes et contenanz'; here, clearly, the *escolier escalavorgans* (= *escalavorjans*) is a cleric guilty of breach of chastity.

The survival of the O.Fr. word family *escolorgier* (and of the simplex *lovergier* = *lubricare*) in modern dialects has been treated by A. Thomas three times: *Nouveaux essais,* pp. 252, 292; *Romania* XXXVIII, 389. Though it is last attested for standard French in Christine de Pisan (end of the 14th cent.), it was still current in Brittany in 1464 and was known to Ménage in 1694 as an Angevine word; in Bas-Maine (just as is true of the simplex in Franche-Comté and Saintonge) it still persists in modern dialects. Since Bas-Maine, Anjou and Saintonge were Anglo-French provinces during the Middle Ages it would not be surprising if the word-family turned up in England.

The English word *sculduddery* must evidently go back to an O.Fr.

---

writings the meaning is even more explicit (Ambr., *aetas quae magis ad vitium lubrica esse consuevit;* Sil., *flore capi juvenum primaevo lubrica mentem nympha*). Hence Fr. *lubrique, lubricité,* Eng. *lubricity,* Germ. *Schlüpfrigkeit* ('loan-translation').

escoulourg-erie;* though this is not attested (the abstract noun generally found being *escolourgement*), still it is as likely a formation as is *tromperie* from *tromper, flânerie* from *flâner.* The stem of the verb is excessively unstable, witness the variants attested by Godefroy (*esculorgier, escal., escorl., escourlourgier, esclorgier*)—an instability easily explainable by the very etymologic intransparency of the forms: there was no word stem with which the popular mind could connect the derivative of Vulg. Latin **excollubricare.* And this etymological intransparency and instability could only increase once this word was transplanted to England. **Escoulourgerie* should have become in English **skulurgery* (with *-g- = -dg-*); then there may have taken place an assimilation (sculurdgeri* > **sculdudgery*) and later a second assimilation (**sculdudgery* > *sculdud-dery*)—or the form **sculdudgery* could have become *sculdudry* under the influence of *ribaldry, husbandry.*[17] The exact stages are impossible to establish; but in the case of words which invite fanciful treatment by their semantic or phonetic nature, we need reckon only with the preservation of the basic phonetic pattern of the word—as, for example, with *conundrum—quadudrum* (= *calibourdaine, Journ. of Engl. and Germ. Phil.,* XLII, 405), or *flabbergast* (= **falabourd-asser, ib.,* p. 407). And, in the case of our word, the American variant *skulduggery* easily takes its place among the various 'Verballhornungen.'

As for the fanciful, comic connotation of the English word which is prevalent today both in England and America, this is easily explainable by the 'foreign' appearance of the word. The particular semantic development attested in this country is probably an extension of the secondary meaning 'obscenity' > 'rascality.'

17. The American form *skulduggery* may owe its *-g-* to *humbuggery, doggery,* etc.

AMERICAN SPEECH IN RADIO POETRY

MILTON A. KAPLAN
New York City

THE SPOKEN word has always been an instrument of entertainment, persuasion, inspiration, and even combat. Because of the incredible growth of radio this instrument has become one of the most formidable forces in the world today. It is small wonder, therefore, that poets are turning to the radio. Traditionally, the spoken word is the very core of poetry, and broadcasting presents this word to an audience of millions. Nor is it at all strange that radio is beginning to welcome the poets. The compression and the allusive power of poetry are needed. 'Radio, whose greatest single commodity is time,' Norman Corwin points out, 'can least afford to waste any.'[1] And poetry does not waste time.

At first the poets were content to read their verses over the air, but the radio, 'the theatre of the ear,' needed more dramatic material. In 1936 the British Broadcasting Corporation produced D. G. Bridson's 'The March of the "45," ' the first poetry play written specifically for the radio. In 1937 the Columbia Broadcasting System presented Archibald MacLeish's 'The Fall of the City.' Other poetry plays designed to fit into the broadcasting pattern followed soon after. Among the radio poets today can be listed Norman Corwin, Archibald MacLeish, Edna St. Vincent Millay, Alfred Kreymborg, Stephen Vincent Benét, W. H. Auden, Louis MacNeice, John LaTouche, A. M. Sullivan, Eve Merriam, Ruth Lechlitner, Norman Rosten, Carl Sandburg, and Maxwell Anderson.

While poets like Sandburg found the radio a natural medium for their verse, others were forced to change their style, for radio poetry must at all times be clear and simple. It is controlled by the heterogeneity of the audience and the physical limitations of the ear, which cannot dart back to clear up difficult points. Radio poetry, therefore, presents its ideas in simple, everyday words, repeating frequently so that even the inattentive listener finally catches the import of the lines.

Two striking examples of the lucidity of verse for the air can be found in the work of Eve Merriam in the United States and Louis MacNeice in England. Miss Merriam's verse has appeared in many magazines. It is what is known as 'intellectual' poetry. The reader must weigh each word to understand the full meaning of the poem:

---

1. Norman Corwin, 'Radio and Morale,' *Saturday Review of Literature*, 25: 7 (July 4, 1942).

How measure exact degrees of evil?
Pleading that flabby oval
is less round than vicious circle?[2]

Yet when she wrote 'Song of the Scorched Earth,' a radio poem for Russian War Relief, she deliberately simplified the verse to such an extent that she admitted it did not sound like her work at all:[3]

Said the Soviet land
'I will feed no fascist hand.
I who have served
the towering Soviet state,
the great one-sixth of the earth,
would be cramped inside your crawling Nazi lie . . .'[4]

Louis MacNeice also writes what might be considered 'difficult' verse:

Warmed and cajoled by the silence, the cowed cipher revives,
Mirrors himself in the cases of pots, paces himself by marble lines,
Makes believe it was he that was the glory that was Rome,
Soft on his cheek the nimbus of other people's martyrdom,
And then returns to the street, his mind an arena where sprawls
Any number of consumptive Keatses and dying Gauls.[5]

MacNeice's radio play, 'Alexander Nevsky,' however, is much more direct:

We have learnt our lesson and so, I hope, have the Germans.
They thought that Russia was an easy prey,
They thought to pick off our cities one by one,
They thought that their brute strength would conquer the Russian soul—
They made a grave mistake.[6]

Written for the mass-audience of millions, radio poetry must use the idiom of common speech. The words are the words of the people talking, but more fundamental than that, the rhythm is the rhythm of the people talking. Blank verse, the traditional pattern of dramatic poetry, is largely abandoned. Modern American speech has a more elastic rhythm. The narrator in Norman Rosten's Cavalcade of America program, 'The Road to Victory,' comments casually:

December 7, 1941
A windy day, not too cold . . .
Sunday—a good day for taking it easy.

---

2. Eve Merriam, 'Savannah Georgia,' *Partisan Review,* 9: 248 (June 1942).
3. Interview with Eve Merriam.
4. Eve Merriam, 'Song of the Scorched Earth' (unpublished script), p. 1.
5. Louis MacNeice, 'Museums,' *A New Anthology of Modern Poetry,* ed. by Seldon Rodman, New York, Random House, 1938, p. 335.
6. Louis MacNeice, 'Alexander Nevsky' (radio script), London, BBC, 1941, p. 41.

Buy a paper. Read a book. Start the radio.
Lean back and look over the roto, the comics, see how Dick Tracy made out.
Sleep it off, sleep late, plenty of time.
Take it easy, America, this is your day.[7]

Stephen Vincent Benét's 'Listen to the People' has the same casual cadence:

This is the firecracker day for sunburnt kids,
The day of the parade,
Slambanging down the street.
Listen to the parade!
There's J. K. Burney's float. . . .[8]

These lines defy the ordinary rules of scansion, but the accent is there; it is the accent of the nervous, staccato speech of today. 'The American language,' Archibald MacLeish explains, 'is a language of accents. Its most marked characteristic is its accentual strength—a strength which the more even, toneless, British tongue rarely achieves. And its whole beauty and color, its great vigor and vitality, result from the sharpness and distinction of its stresses.'[9] Thus, the General in MacLeish's 'The Fall of the City' speaks with the fervor and rhythm of anger:

You! Are you free? Will you fight?
There is still inches for fighting!
There is still a niche in the streets!
You can stand on the stairs and meet him!
You can hold in the dark of a hall.
You can die![10]

Rooted in common speech, the language of radio poetry is informal and very often colloquial. Stephen Vincent Benét's 'Nightmare at Noon' contains expressions like these:

What's that, brother? Double talk?[11]

The dopes who write 'Jimmy's a dope' on the tunnel walls.[12]

In Alfred Kreymborg's 'The Planets,' Jupiter asks: 'And where are they

7. Norman Rosten, 'The Road to Victory' (radio script), New York, The Cavalcade of America, 1942, p. 2.

8. Stephen Vincent Benét, 'Listen to the People,' *Scholastic,* 40: 17 (Feb. 2, 1942). Copyright 1941 by Stephen Vincent Benét.

9. Archibald MacLeish, 'A Note on the Verse,' *Panic,* New York, Houghton, 1935, p. ix.

10. Archibald MacLeish, 'The Fall of the City,' New York, Farrar and Rinehart, 1937, p. 28.

11. Stephen Vincent Benét, 'Nightmare at Noon,' New York, Farrar and Rinehart, 1940 (issued in leaflet form by the Council for Democracy, New York, with the special permission of the publishers), p. 4. Copyright 1940 by Stephen Vincent Benét.

12. *Ibid.,* p. 7.

now?' The Second Moon answers: 'In the soup, sir.'[13] Ruth Lechlitner, in 'We Are the Rising Wing,' speaks of the 'moll to the Big Shot.'[14] John LaTouche in 'The Traitor' uses dialect in his verse about Benedict Arnold:

> I read in de paper—a general was a rat
> Sold our Georgie Washington, and took a powder. . . .[15]

Irve Tunick in 'Builders of American Aircraft' brings in a baseball reference: 'The Dodgers could use an extra pitcher.'[16]

Naturally, the figures of speech must be clear and simple too, appealing to the experience of the average listener. As Corwin puts it: 'There is no retina of the ear to carry over syllables as the eye does images; hence the radio writer's imagery must never be too intense, or shot at the listener too fast. It must be directly communicable and easily assimilated, or it has no right to be on the air.'[17] Thus Corwin in 'They Fly Through the Air With the Greatest of Ease' speaks of 'churches sticking steeple swords into the sky.'[18] The little village in Bernard C. Schoenfeld's 'Little Johnny Appleseed' is 'Lovely as a young girl is lovely,'[19] and in MacLeish's 'The Fall of the City' the people 'whirl from the streets like wild leaves on a wind.'[20]

It must not be assumed, however, that all radio poetry fits into the flexible pattern of conversation. There are exceptions, of course. This excerpt from A. M. Sullivan's 'A Day in Manhattan' would certainly baffle the ordinary listener:

> Pentelicus bore the Parthenon
> To the soul of Phidias;
> The shrine of Pallas
> Perches like an ivory coronet
> On the brow of the Acropolis.[21]

When Mr. Sullivan was confronted with this passage, he admitted that it was too difficult for radio. He did assert, nevertheless, that there is a

---

13. Alfred Kreymborg, 'The Planets,' New York, Farrar and Rinehart, 1938, p. 28.
14. Ruth Lechlitner, 'We Are the Rising Wing' (radio script), Columbus, WOSO, The Ohio State University (no date), p. 10.
15. John LaTouche, 'The Traitor' (radio script), New York, NBC, 1940, p. 2.
16. Irve Tunick, 'Builders of American Aircraft' (radio script), New York, NBC, 1941, p. 2.
17. Norman Corwin, 'The Sovereign Word,' *Theatre Arts Monthly*, 24: 131 (Feb. 1940).
18. Norman Corwin, 'They Fly through the Air with the Greatest of Ease,' *Thirteen by Corwin*, New York, Henry Holt, 1942, p. 62.
19. Bernard C. Schoenfeld, 'Little Johnny Appleseed' (radio script), New York, CBS (no date), p. 5.
20. Archibald MacLeish, 'The Fall of the City,' p. 27.
21. A. M. Sullivan, 'A Day in Manhattan,' *A Day in Manhattan*, New York, Dutton, 1941, p. 30.

kind of 'infection' quality in poetry which transmits the effect although some of the images are missed.[22] There can be no quarrel with that, and it is only fair to Mr. Sullivan to add that his radio poems describe skyscrapers, truck drivers, and trains in language that is, for the most part, lucid and vivid.

The fact that the poet writes in the language of his time is hardly a startling revelation. Shakespeare too wrote in the idiom of his day. The point is that a modern poet writing in Shakespeare's style is really anachronistic. There is one law, T. S. Eliot declares, that poetry must obey: 'the law that poetry must not stray too far from the ordinary everyday language which we use and hear. Whether poetry is accentual or syllabic, rhymed or rhymeless, formal or free, it cannot afford to lose its contact with the changing language of common intercourse.'[23] The seeming limitations of radio, therefore, are the poet's greatest opportunity, for they force him to use the dramatic language of conversation, and as a result, his poetry becomes a vital force in the lives of his people.

22. Interview with A. M. Sullivan.
23. T. S. Eliot, 'The Music of Poetry,' *Partisan Review*, 9: 455 (Nov.-Dec. 1942).

'HIGHBALL,' TO SPEED

I. WILLIS RUSSELL
University of Alabama

PROFESSOR Bolinger (*American Speech,* 17: 270) asks for comment on *'Highball,* to speed, Feb. 1942.' The word in this sense is not in *Webster's* (1941), or *Funk and Wagnalls'* (1935), or the *Thorndike Century Senior Dictionary* (1941). It is not in Partridge's *Slang and Unconventional English* (1937) or Farmer and Henley's *Slang and Its Analogues* (1890-1904). When, however, we turn to American slang dictionaries, we begin picking up the word. Weseen's *Dictionary of American Slang* (1934) defines it 'To go ahead; a signal to go ahead; a fast freight,' but does not specifically list 'speed.' In Berrey and Van den Bark's *American Thesaurus of Slang* (1942), 'highball' is fully treated. Its synonyms include 'signal to leave or proceed, also signal to go fast' (verb and noun), 'speed' (verb and noun), 'rapid, quick, fast' (a 'highball' engineer), 'fast train, fast freight, express.' And in his glossary of American slang in *Slang To-Day and Yesterday* (1934), Partridge defines the noun as 'full-speed signal' and the verb as 'to travel swiftly; to depart, esp. hastily.'

It will be evident, I think, that 'highball' is a railroad term. It has three senses which are of especial interest to us: (1) signal to go ahead; (2) signal to go fast; to depart, especially hastily; (3) speed; to speed, to travel swiftly. The first sense is treated in the *OED* Supplement, which defines it as 'A signal to proceed, given to a locomotive driver by waving the hand above the head. Hence, a clear way, a straight course. *U. S.*' In support of the extended meaning, it cites the following passages, the first of which is especially pertinent.

1920 Hunter *Trail Drivers Texas* I. 68 We had a high ball trail from there on. *Ib.* 354 Mr. Butter [*sic*] and I told them [cowboys] . . . to strike a high ball to town. (Quoted from *DAE.*)

The *DAE*'s entry for our sense one of 'highball' is its number four, as follows: '+4 (See quot. 1913.) Also attrib. and transf. 1913 *Dialect Notes* IV. 11 *High-ball.* Signal, or order (to go). (Railroad term.) "The conductor gave the engineer the *high-ball* to go ahead." ' The *DAE* also cites the two passages from Hunter quoted above. Incidentally, I doubt if a railroad man would say 'high-ball to go ahead,' for 'go ahead' is precisely what the word means in this sense. As the *DAE*'s plus sign shows, 'highball' is an Americanism. According to two Southern Railway (SR.) trainmen I recently consulted, the word originates from the old type of signal consisting of a pole on which were hung two red balls (one for

each direction of traffic), which could be raised and lowered. When one of the balls was raised, the train was literally given the 'highball' or 'go ahead' signal. Probably a more accurate account is the following.

> The New Castle and Frenchtown Railroad in 1832 worked out what is probably the first railroad signal system, in the United States, at least. At each station on the line, about three miles apart, a tall pole had been erected. As the train passed a station the station master hauled a white ball to the top of the pole. This could be seen through a telescope at the next station. We are informed that the signal the conductor waves to the engineer to go ahead is still known as the 'high ball' on most lines.[1]

Essentially the same explanation is given by Anson and Funkhouser.[2] The following examples further illustrate this sense:

> Picking up the highball as he drifted out of the freight yards, Engineer Joe De Nobel gave her the throttle and swung onto the main line just ahead of the crack Sunset Limited.[3]

> . . . a light on a signal bridge casts its emerald eye down the way. A high-waved lantern swings its 'highball'—the final word.[4]

> We highballed out at 5:05. No hurry, no lost motion, no excitement—just clocklike precision by every man jack of them.[5]

Senses two and three both look like extensions of sense one. Since 'highball' primarily (so I believe) denoted 'Go ahead, clear track,' it seems but natural that a train given the 'highball' in sense one might 'highball' in either of the other senses, especially the third. As one would expect, railroad men know the third sense of the word, though an old-timer I recently talked to knew only sense one (he raised his hand over his head to illustrate what you did when you gave the 'highball'). Indeed I get the impression that the second sense of 'highball' is not nearly so common among railroad men as the slang dictionaries suggest. My SR. informants use the word only in senses one and three. Note especially, in this connection, the last quotation given above: 'We highballed out. . . . No hurry. . . .' The second sense of 'highball' is indeed another extension,

---

1. A. E. Parkins, *The South: Its Economic-Geographic Development* (N.Y.: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1938), p. 168. I am indebted to Professor James F. Doster for this reference.

2. 'Some railroad terminology, like the "highball," stems from various mechanical devices now long obsolete. In giving the engineer the "highball," or go-ahead sign, a conductor raises his hand—at night his lantern—as high as he can reach, thereby impersonating the big wooden ball that used to be hoisted to the top of a pole in presemaphore days' (Lyman Anson and Clifford Funkhouser, 'The Rails Have a Word for It,' *Sat. Eve. Post*, 214: 27, June 13, 1942).

3. Frank J. Taylor, 'Battle of the Hotshot,' *Sat. Eve. Post*, 213: 18 (Nov. 16, 1940). See also Edwin H. Brown and Ralph Morse, 'Highballing the Hotshots,' *Popular Science Monthly*, 138: 114-119 (May 1941). 'Hotshot' (fast) freights take precedence over most passenger trains (p. 114), hence 'highball,' 'clear track' for them.

4. S. Kip Farrington, Jr., *Railroading from the Head End* (N.Y.: Doubleday, Doran & Co., 1943), p. 7.

5. *Ibid.*, p. 48.

but, I think, more common outside railroad circles. How easy it is to associate speed with the word, even when it is pretty clearly used in sense one, can be seen from the article by Brown and Morse cited in footnote 3.

'Highball' in its second and third senses can be dated almost as early as in its first sense. McKnight[6] in 1923 cites the noun among his examples of railroad men's vocabulary, defining it as a 'full-speed signal.' Partridge,[7] citing McKnight's definition, thinks it probably antedates 1920. 'High ball,' meaning 'to travel swiftly; to depart, esp. hastily,' he believes antedates 1925. Even better evidence is to be had, however, if the second Hunter passage cited by both the *OED* Supplement and the *DAE* is quoted in full:

> At Fort Worth . . . we met two shorthorn cowboys who were yelling and shooting, and we came near having trouble with them, because they turned our cattle back. Mr. Butler and I told them in a very emphatic manner to strike a high ball to town, and they struck it, and the last we saw of them was a streak of Fort Worth dust.[8]

'To strike a high ball,' to be sure, is not the idiom; it sounds like what a man might use who had heard the real thing on the railroad and had not remembered it correctly. But that 'highball' here means 'speed' and plenty of it, there can be no doubt. We certainly have here an early use of sense three of the word and possibly of sense two. Its use by a non-railroad man may also be significant.

If one may now be permitted some pure speculation, it seems clear that sense one of 'highball' must be nearly as old as the ball-type signal (assuming, of course, that the derivation cited is correct), which came into existence in 1832. One may also speculate on the age of the other senses. A former Western Union operator, a New Englander, now sixty-eight, whose memory for events around the beginning of the century is keener than for more recent ones, is acquainted with sense three. I seem to remember it being used on the Western Maryland around 1915 when railroading was my hobby, though 'hit the ball' is the expression describing speed which I remember with certainty.[9] The author of the passage from Hunter's collection, T. M. Turner, of San Antonio, Texas, may also be mentioned here. Since he was probably in his sixties when he wrote his

---

6. G. H. McKnight, *English Words and Their Background* (N.Y.: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1923), p. 44.

7. Eric Partridge, *Slang To-Day and Yesterday* (N.Y.: Macmillan, 1934), p. 442.

8. J. Marvin Hunter, *The Trail Drivers of Texas,* 2d ed., revised, 2 vols. in one (Nashville, Tenn.: Cokesbury Press, 1925), pp. 382-383.

9. Compare also: 'These grand trains . . . hit the ball at 50 miles an hour' (Farrington, *op. cit.,* pp. 161-162). Whether or not this expression is related to 'highball' or derives from the fact that the top of the rail is called the 'ball,' as one of my SR. informants suggests, I do not know. My SR. informants also use 'balling the jack' to describe speed. There may be some connection.

account and used 'highball,' I think we may safely assume that he had not just learned it. Thus Partridge's conjecture of dates before 1920 and 1925 seems plausible. Indeed dates before 1900 for all the senses seem not at all unlikely.

A good source for earlier citations ought to be the many books and stories listed in Frank P. Donovan's *The Railroad in Literature,* Boston, 1940.[10]

---

10. Illustrations a year earlier than any discussed here (including *DAE*'s) came to light after the MS. had gone to press. They occur in 'The Gila Monster Route,' written by L. F. Post and Glenn Norton for the *Railroad Man's Magazine* and reprinted by the Lomaxes in *American Ballads and Folk Songs* (N. Y.: Macmillan, 1934), pp. 24-26. Both citations illustrate sense one, though, as is frequently so, the second suggests speed.

(1) 'The con high-balled, and the manifest freight
Pulled out on the stem behind the mail,
And she hit the ball on a sanded rail.'

(2) 'She whistled twice and high-balled out,
They were off—down the Gila Monster Route.'

My thanks are due Mr. D. G. Patterson, Acting Superintendent of the Reading Rooms of the Library of Congress, for locating the original of this ballad in the *Railroad Man's Magazine,* 17: 493 (April 1912).

NOTES ON THE PHILADELPHIA DIALECT

R. WHITNEY TUCKER
Pennsylvania Military College

LET IT BE understood, to begin with, that the expression 'Philadelphia dialect,' or sub-dialect, is used here for convenience only, because the city of Philadelphia is the largest center of population in the dialect area under consideration, and contains roughly half of the speakers of the dialect. To tell the truth, I think that the real heart and centre of this dialect was originally, and still is, a few miles to the south, in the eastern part of Delaware County—where, by the way, the first English-speaking settlements in this region were made—and that the dialect has spread in all directions from this original home; for it seems to me that the special peculiarities in pronunciation and idiom appear in their most extreme form in Delaware County.

Also included in the area of the Philadelphia dialect are the western and northern suburbs (in Chester, Montgomery, and Bucks Counties), the northern section of Delaware including Wilmington, and neighboring parts of New Jersey with the shore resorts from Cape May to Atlantic City.[1] These resorts, it should be pointed out, are largely frequented by Philadelphians.

It is proposed to discuss, in the present article, the characteristics and affinities of this dialect: to point out those features which it shares with other dialects and those which distinguish it from others.

The Philadelphia dialect (not being New England, New York, or Southern) is essentially an eastern[2] variety of General American, in which final and preconsonantal *r* is rather generally pronounced, though not with so much emphasis as in upstate New York and the Middle West. In Philadelphia speech one may also observe a general sort of similarity to that of the entire eastern and central sections of Pennsylvania (except the northern counties along the boundary of New York), whereas the speech of the Pittsburgh area is quite different and belongs linguistically to the Middle West.

One lexicographical peculiarity of this dialect which is rather widely known is the use of the word *square,* '(city) block.' This term, it should

1. Echoes of the Philadelphia vocalism may be heard as far away as Trenton and Harrisburg.

2. The eastern and western varieties of General American have been best defined in the radio programme 'Where Are You From?' conducted by Henry Lee Smith for a year or two before the war. The eastern variety is distinguished chiefly by the preservation of separate vowel sounds in *merry, marry, Mary,* and by an open vowel in *wash* and some similar words.

be noted, has spread throughout eastern and central Pennsylvania,[3] and is supposed to be derived from William Penn's innovation in city planning: he laid out his city with straight, parallel streets, forming rectangles which the inhabitants then called *squares*. Apparently the early German settlers were impressed and carried this English term with them as they moved inland. Another peculiarity is to be found in the phrases *in the way, Get out of my way,* etc., where Philadelphians and Pennsylvania Dutch alike say *road* instead of *way*.

Idioms shared with metropolitan New York are:

1. *sleigh,* 'sled,' i.e. a child's sled for coasting.
2. *walk,* transitive(?), 'accompany on foot': 'I'll walk you upstairs.' Perhaps *you* is a dative.
3. *wait up,* for 'wait a minute.'
4. *this after,* short for 'this afternoon.'

Terms heard also in the South are:

1. *hide and seek* for the children's game. The present writer, whose childhood was spent chiefly in New England and New York, knew it always as 'hide and go seek' and felt the shorter name to be exclusively literary, or perhaps archaic. Yet it is used without affectation in the Philadelphia area and, apparently, throughout the southeastern states.
2. *spigot,* pronounced *spicket* and commonly used for 'faucet.'

The following terms seem to be peculiar to the Philadelphia dialect:

1. *taffy* 'lollipop,' known in some places as a 'sucker.'
2. *yo* (is this the nautical term familiar in song and story?), used especially by children in calling one another: *Yo Bil-lee!* and pronounced with a prolongation of all the vowel sounds in the phrase.
3. *Well?* supposed in Delaware County to be polite, instead of 'What?' asking for repetition of the last remark or question. This word is often spoken almost without any interrogative intonation, and is very disconcerting to the inexperienced.
4. *serve,* 'carry, deliver,' as the mail, newspapers, or anything carried and delivered on a more or less regular route.[4] Thus, the boy next door *serves* the Saturday Evening Post, a farmer *serves* butter or eggs to us.
5. *yakers* (or *yakes* or *yacks*), or *yakers on it!* 'I claim it'; also *Goods* (*on it*)! 'I claim a share.' These idioms, which belong to schoolboys' jargon, have always struck me as remarkable. I cannot suggest a reasonable ety-

3. It is not usual in southern New Jersey.

4. I believe this term may occasionally be heard elsewhere, but here it is used habitually. A colleague who comes from Wilmington, on the outskirts of the dialect area, tells me that you can *serve* the paper, which comes regularly to each subscriber, but not the mail, as there is no predicting when or whether any person will get a letter. But in Chester they *serve* everything.

mology for *yakers*. When I went to school (near New York), we used to say 'I boney it'—etymology of *boney*?

6. *any more* used in the positive: 'Marian goes to high school *any more*'; 'They used to have a green car, but *any more* they have a blue one.' This usage has been cited[5] from other localities, and there has been some speculation as to its origin. Can it be that the speaker means, She doesn't go to the other school any more, They don't have that green car any more, but a blue one instead? If so, we have merely a telescoping of two clauses or ideas into one; but some examples do not readily lend themselves to this interpretation. The phrase sounds like one the Pennsylvania Dutch would be likely to use; yet I cannot remember ever having heard one of them use it. Most of the instances quoted (see note 5) are from West Virginia, and there are some from other mining regions; I would therefore suggest the possibility of a Welsh source. There were in fact a large number of Welsh among the early settlers, especially among the first Quaker settlers, in Delaware County;[6] and one might suppose that they had had some influence upon the dialect.

7. *just about* meaning 'just barely'.

Rather odd is the intonation in short sentences beginning with *yes* and *no*, where there is a rising and falling (circumflex!) pitch accent, in addition to special stress, on the last word: *Yes it îs, No we hâven't.*

I come now to the phonological characteristics of the dialect, aside from those inherent in its general position mentioned above.

In initial *wh* the aspirate is lost, so that *wheel* is pronounced like *weal*, *which* like *witch*, *where* like *wear*, etc. This phenomenon is almost universal along the eastern seaboard from New Haven to northern Virginia, and also occurs elsewhere, as at Albany and Troy, N.Y.; it is pretty common in England, too, but there it might be connected with the loss of other initial aspirates. In a similar way an initial *h* is lost before [j] in both Philadelphia and New York. I believe the consonant cluster [hj] occurs in Standard English only in *hu-*, as in *huge*, *Huron*, *Hugh*—pronounced therefore *yuge*, *Yuron*, *you*.

All the diphthongs and 'long vowels' of Modern English present special phonetic features in this dialect. First it may be stated that in general they all tend to be over-long; this circumstance gives an effect of slow

5. First by Kemp Malone in *Am. Sp.*, 6: 460; further discussion in vols. 7, 10, 11, and 14, by various persons.

6. See C. M. Andrews, *Colonial Period of American History* (New Haven, 1934 ff.), 3: 301; C. H. Browning, *Welsh Settlement of Pennsylvania* (Philadelphia, 1912), esp. pp. 16-42; T. A. Glenn, *Merion in the Welsh Tract* (Norristown, Pa., 1896). The suburbs of Philadelphia are full of Welsh place names, such as Bryn Mawr, Haverford, Cynwyd, Merion.

speech, or drawling, which is a little unusual in urban dialects. I shall discuss separately the sounds in question, beginning with two originally short vowels which are, or may be, lengthened.

'Broad *a*,' where it occurs, is noticeably rounded, as is often the case in New York speech.

'Short o' remains fairly short and is unrounded, pronounced [ɑ], in most positions; but before [f] and [ŋ], and before [g, s, θ] when final or followed by another consonant, also in the word *on,* it is prolonged, tense, and rounded and has become much closer (though still not approaching a genuine close *o* as in German). The same sound appears in such words as *awful, talk,* and *thought.* This semi-close *o* is heard also in New York, but its distribution is somewhat different; on the other hand, Southern dialects seem to have the same distribution of *o*-sounds as Philadelphia, although with a wider range of phonetic values. Thus Philadelphia in this respect has a position intermediate, linguistically as well as geographically, between New York and the South.

The developments just mentioned are to be noted especially before *r:* *a* is distinctly rounded, i.e., pronounced as open *o* [ɔ]. But *-ar-* is never confused with *-or-,* for in the latter combination the *o* is rather long and very close [o]. Contrast therefore *far* [fɔ:r] : *four* [fo:r].

Parallel to these two vowels are the diphthongs of the types [aɪ] and [oɪ]. In *oi, oy* the first element is long and close: *boy* [bo:ɪ]. In the [aɪ]-diphthong the first element is long and rounded,[7] with no distinctions of quantity or quality according to the following sound: *ride* [rɔ:ɪd], *night* [nɔ:ɪt].[8]

Both the [aɪ]-type diphthong and the [ɑʊ]-type diphthong exist in only one quality, whereas in most American dialects the first element is shortened and modified in quality before a voiceless consonant—the precise sounds vary according to locality. (In my own speech, for example, this short sound, as in *night* or *out,* seems to be identical with the vowel of *but;* contrast with [ɑ] in *ride, loud.*) No such distinction is made in the Philadelphia dialect. The same is true of Southern Piedmont, but not Coastal, dialects. Perhaps we can say that in this respect the Philadelphia area is merely a northern extension of the Piedmont dialect, by way of western Virginia and Baltimore.

---

7. As noted for both New York and Philadelphia by G. L. Trager and B. Bloch, *Language,* 17: 237 (1941).

8. This pronunciation belongs to the most extreme form of the dialect. There is of course a considerable variation among individual speakers. In any case, my phonetic

The diphthong written *ou* or *ow* has [æ] instead of [ɑ] as its first element, as is regularly the case in Southern dialects; so here again we seem to find a kinship with the South. In the North this sound is chiefly rustic. Examples: *house* [hæ:ʊs], *down* [dæ:ʊn].

It is a familiar observation that our 'long vowels' are usually pronounced as diphthongs: [eɪ, ɪi, oʊ, ʊu] or other similar combinations. These diphthongs are greatly exaggerated in Philadelphia. 'Long *o*,' for instance, as in *old, go,* is pronounced [ɛ:ʊ] or [œ:ʊ]—the first element open, either rounded or unrounded, and with a very lax enunciation. It is this sound, more than any other, that makes Philadelphia speech seem affected or 'sissified' to other Americans. This diphthong, or one approximating it, is of course a characteristic of many dialects in England; but elsewhere in America it belongs to only a few localized class dialects.[9]

In *oo* the first element appears to be an open *i,* prolonged [ɪ:ʊ]. This vowel does not otherwise occur in English except as a short vowel.

In 'long *a*,' as in *day,* the first element ranges from [æ] to [a]. The resulting diphthong and the two just mentioned are treated in nearly the same way in some English dialects, notably Cockney, where indeed the same tendency has been carried still further ([dɑɪ]).

In 'long *e*,' as in *see* or *me,* the first element is often close *e* [e] or a sound approximating the Slavic *jery.*[10] Thus *see* [se:ɪ] or [sɘ̈:ɪ].

I think the changes in pronunciation of these diphthongs are to be interpreted simply as a consistent series of dissimilations. Where the second element is the front vowel [ɪ], the first element is shifted toward the back, from [ɪi] to [ɘ̈ɪ], from [eɪ] to [aɪ], from [ɑɪ] to [ɔɪ], from [ɔɪ] to [oɪ]. Where, on the other hand, the back vowel [ʊ] is the second element, the first element is shifted toward the front, from [ʊu] to [ɪʊ], from [oʊ] to [ɛʊ], from [ɑʊ] to [æʊ].

Before *r* and *l* most of these diphthongs are differently treated—the exceptions being Standard English [o] and [u] before *l.* These same two vowels have remained close before *r;* thus *more* [mo:r], [pu:r]. In the other five diphthongs, the second element is lost before either *r* or *l;* but here two types of development must be noted. In the case of [ɑɪ] and [ɔɪ], the loss of [ɪ] apparently preceded the process whereby the first ele-

transcriptions must be only approximate, as I do not wish to use complicated and unfamiliar symbols which themselves would require an elaborate explanation.

9. It is not true, as stated by Trager and Bloch, *Language,* 17: 244, that this diphthong is a feature of 'the extreme type'—or any other type—of Boston English. It is, however, affected by some persons (chiefly women) in all parts of the country.

10. The symbol [ɘ̈] is here used to represent this sound (Russian *jery,* Polish *y*).

ment became relatively close (see above); hence the pronunciations *boil* [bɔ:l], *pile* [pɑ:l], *Irish* [ɑ:rʃ], *fire* [fɑ:r][11]—the last distinguished from *far* [fɔ:r].

The remaining diphthongs before *r* and *l* have undergone the phonetic developments described above and have also lost their second element. Such resulting pronunciations as *rail* [rɛ:l], *fair* [fɛ:r], *mere* [mɪ:r], *feel* [fɪ:l] are reasonably common elsewhere, or, in some cases, normal and regular; but I would call attention to an unusually strong tendency among Philadelphians to omit a following unaccented vowel, so that *mayor* is pronounced like *mare*—cf. the pronunciations of *fire* and *Irish* mentioned above.

When *ou,* pronounced [æʊ], loses its second element, the result is simply 'flat *a*': *hour* [æ:r], *owl* [æ:l], *Powell* [pæ:l], the latter two hardly to be distinguished from *Al* and *pal.*

I will close by asking two questions which I cannot answer. First, does the vocalism which I have described come from some English source, to be sought in English dialects? It has been pointed out that a number of its features may be found in England—particularly in the dialects of a belt extending from London roughly northwest to Liverpool. Possibly investigation would show that a majority of the early settlers came from these parts of England. Secondly, about 400 B.C. Boeotian Greek had developed a set of values for the Greek vowels which appeared a few centuries later in all the other dialects: do the Philadelphia and Cockney vowel sounds foreshadow in a similar way a future generalized development in English? And if so, could this be considered as only a continuation of the series of vowel shifts which have characterized Modern English since the end of the fifteenth century?

---

11. This pronunciation, with others like it, is to be heard elsewhere, notably in backwoods sections of the South, where, however, it is regarded as a vulgarism. But in Delaware County, Pa., I have heard it from moderately well educated persons, though it is certainly commoner among the semi-illiterate.

A RE-EXAMINATION OF THE VOCABULARY OF 'A STRAY YANKEE IN TEXAS'

JOHN T. KRUMPELMANN
Louisiana State University

ALTHOUGH the *Dictionary of American English* has used *A Stray Yankee in Texas,* by 'Philip Paxton' (S. A. Hammett), as a source, a re-examination discloses that the resources of this book, published in 1853, are far from exhausted. It is the object of this paper to set forth as briefly as possible early usages unobserved by the DAE, or inadequately represented in it. Passing attention is also given to a few terms which may not belong in the realm of the DAE, but which represent usage rare enough to demand elucidation for the American reader. To the latter group belongs our first entry.

Average, n. See quots. P. 32. Down he [the bear] came with a tremendous thug, plump in the midst of the dogs, and very narrowly escaped making a general average among them. P. 274. Through these [a number of young negroes] he rushed, making a general average of broken heads and bloody noses. (See NED under *Average, sb.*[2] < F *avarie,* 'damage', especially under 4, *General Average;* similarly in Webster.)

Cane, n. Cane-brake, land overgrown by cane. P. 30. Having squeezed through a thick piece of cane, we came suddenly upon as pretty a scene of confusion . . . (Cf. DAE under *Cane* 1 b, where no citation exemplifies its usage as well as the above.)

Choctaw, n. As in DAE 2 b, Taken as a type of unknown, difficult language. DAE offers only much more recent citations, *viz.,* 1873, 1880, 1912. When in Paxton's story a prisoner before the bar introduces into his testimony the Latin words *'vi et armis'* (p. 211), the Judge interrupts: 'No *Choctaw,* Sir—use plain English.'

Confectionery, n. A place where whiskey is sold; whiskey itself (?). P. 196. The one [edifice] a 'confectionery'—'Confectionery' means whiskey in Texas. (Unless Paxton is using whiskey in an extended sense to indicate 'the presence of whiskey,' which the writer believes to be the case, we have here an extension of the meaning of *Confectionery* + 1 b in DAE, A barroom or liquor store.)

Dutch thunder, n. See quot. P. 27. A round dozen of African oaths, succeeded by a continued rumble of mutterings, for all the world like distant Dutch thunder. (Another usage for the polysemous adjective *Dutch*? O shades of Hendrick Hudson and his 'keglers' in the Catskills!)

Grand-ecoy, n. Grande écaille, tarpon. P. 161. 'Won't . . . the grand-

ecoys' [large and ravenous fish] 'choke theyselves jumpin' at 'em for mullet?'

Green trout, n. Black bass. P. 65. I found little difficulty in obtaining a supply of green trout and other kinds of river fish.

Groin, n. See quot. P. 117. A fish spear is to him [the Texan] a *groin;* a boat, a *dugout;* a halter, a *bosaal;* a whip, a *quirt.* (DAE has this quotation under *Bosaal,* but *groin* is not listed in its alphabetical order.)

Hack-knife, n. A knife for hacking. DAE has two quotations from this volume (pp. 22, 57) as the only occurrences of the word. It occurs again on p. 62. In the last two passages it is designated as 'huge' and 'large,' respectively. Such a knife is commonly known today in the territory described by Paxton as a *machette* (see NED under *Matchet*). Until other examples are found doubt must exist whether Paxton was not referring to the *machette,* with a corrupt form of 'jack-knife' which in the Texas Spanish pronunciation might well have been known as *hack-knife.* Cf. *Juan* pronounced *Huan,* etc.

Heading, n. Pillow or cushion. P. 92. A bed was prepared . . . of blankets and counterpanes, with anything and everything stuck under the end for 'heading.'

Heels, n. To have the heels of = to be fleeter. P. 147. The enemy were well mounted, and had the heels of us without doubt. If we attempted a charge, they would be off before we had half a chance. (See NED under *Heel(s), sb.*[1] 3 C, *To have* or *get the heels of,* to outrun. 1832 Marryat, *N. Forster* xi, Be smart my lads, for she has the heels of us.)

Hogged, part. Cropped short. P. 131. He'd . . . clipped her long tail and hogged her mane. (DAE has the noun *Hog mane* as early as 1767 but no example of the verb.)

Jack-leg, n. See quot. P. 284. In the Texan vocabulary, all men who have a mere inkling of any trade or profession are called 'jack-legs'. (Although DAE has '+Jackleg. An impostor, incompetent workman, or shyster,' it does not quote the above from Paxton, but only the attributive use in the second following sentence.)

Marais, n. See quot. P. 56. Three miles below was a *marais* or slough.

Merry-jerry, n. ?Travelling amusement, show, menagerie? P. 183. An old planter onst said to me when he met me inside of one of them preambulating circuses and merry-jerries. (Not in Bartlett, DAE, Thornton.)

Nebuchadnezzarise, v. To crawl on all fours. (Cf. *Daniel,* 4:33.) P. 170. Having heard the mode of *crawling for deer* described, . . . down he dropped upon his knees and commenced Nebuchadnezzarising towards his intended victims.

Needle, n. See quot. P. 160. Around the foot of each tree [cypress] are standing a number of those singular conical-shaped shoots, termed needles. (DAE under definition +2 has the above as its only example of this meaning of the word. Since these shoots are usually termed 'knees' not 'needles', and since the cypress is a pinaceous tree and its foliage somewhat resembles needles [cf. German *Nadelbäume*], it would be well to seek corroborative evidence before accepting on the basis of this passage the probability that two parts of the same tree might be designated or designable by the same term. Again it seems reasonable to suggest that we may have here the result of sonal association [cf. *Hack-knife,* supra], or more probably a case of sono-visual synesthesia [e.g., *radish, redish*].)

Passion vine, n. The plant which bears the passion flower. P. 57. The 'passion vine' with its singular flower and luscious fruit.

Polonces. See quot. P. 153. We had not been in our new camp an hour before Mexican women began to come in, with 'polonces' and 'tortillas' for sale. (This seems to be the second recorded use of this word in American speech. See 'Charles Sealsfield's Americanisms II' [*American Speech,* April, 1941, p. 110 f.] for the other occurrence.)

Poule d'eau, n. Coot. P. 245. From the poor, despised 'poule d'eau' to the epicurean 'Canvas-back' and the stately swan. (Not in DAE. W. A. Read, *Louisiana French* [Louisiana State University Press, 1931], says: 'Both the English and French natives of Louisiana use *poule d'eau* as the name of this bird, some of the former pronouncing it like English *pull doo*' [p. 61.].)

Rig, n. Outfit, regalia. P. 18. Joe was in full Texas rig. P. 229. You'd hev larfed ef you could hev seen his rig fer his fust expedishun. P. 267. Here was a rig for a July day in Texas, with the thermometer at 105° in the shade! (DAE +2.*W.*, 'The complete riding equipage of a cowboy,' is too restricted to embrace the above. NED *sb.*[6] 2. '*colloq.* Costume, outfit, style of dress' fits the case, but its citations, 1857, 1884, 1896, are considerably later than Paxton.)

Robinson Crusoe, v. To tramp, vagabond. P. 144. So well did this kind of life agree with me that . . . I might have gone on Robinson Crusoeing it yet.

Stuffy, a. Sulky. P. 139. The boy wer stuffy enough till the old man swung off, and then he give in, and told the truth. (NED has '4 U.S. *colloq.* Angry, sulky,' with citations dated 1825, 1898. DAE has citations dated 1825, 1862, 1890.)

Sullens. See quot. P. 24. Occasionally stamping with pain and anger, like a boy in the sullens. (NED has under *Sullen,* 'C *sb.* (in *pl.,* usually

the sullens; rarely *sing.*) A state of gloomy ill-humour . . . Phr. *in the sullens.*' Of the two examples of this usage there given, 1631 and 1864, only the latter seems to parallel the phrase used by Paxton.)

Tow-headed, a. Having whitish or tousled hair. P. 182. Quite a number of tow-headed boys. (NED has under *Tow sb.*[1] 4 one citation dated 1884. DAE has +*Towhead.*)

Vamos, v.tr. To depart from a place. (DAE under *Vamo(o)se* 2.) P. 117. When he [the Texan] wishes to leave, he does not say with the Yankee, 'Well, we'd better be a goin',' but *'Let's vamos,'* or *'Let's vamos the ranche.'*

Wood up, v. To take a drink of liquor. (DAE under *Wood, v.* +2.b.) P. 185. When he and his friend went out 'to wood up,' he asked him how on earth the jury could clear him? P. 201. And they go in to 'wood up'.

'CAT CRACKER' AND 'CAT PLANT'

It is not surprising that the term *catalysis,* meaning acceleration of a reaction, should be much used in these times. In addition to its scientific meaning in chemistry it is used figuratively.

Lately is to be found, too, a nickname, *cat cracker.* The September, 1943, issue of *Fortune* (page 50) speaks of the oil industry's nickname for the new catalytic cracking processes now producing high octane gas.

The Lamp, published by the Standard Oil Company of New Jersey, has on its February, 1943, cover a photograph of the new fluid catalytic cracking unit at Bayway, N.J. —'a symbol of defeat for the Axis.' Known as the 'cat cracker' to Jersey people, *The Lamp* explains, and promptly rechristened an 'Axis cracker' by the press, the plant was planned and approved before the Pearl Harbor attack. Such a plant costs about $6,000,000 to construct; Standard Oil of New Jersey has three of these units in operation, with five other 'cat crackers' under construction.

Catalyst is also much used, and *cat plant.* 'Near Houston, Texas, you visit the miracle catalytic cracking plant. . . . You are lucky enough to be taken through the *"cat plant."'* (Norman Cousins in the *Saturday Review of Literature,* November 13, 1943, p. 10.)

M.M.S.

FIFTH COLUMN MARCHES ON

DWIGHT L. BOLINGER
Yale University

LESS THAN seven years ago *fifth column* was only a witticism on the lips of a Spanish general; today it has become, in the words of one writer, the great bugaboo of our age. These facts are familiar to most of us—the name of its author, and the significance of the number five. But how *fifth column* grew to its present stature is a story yet untold, despite the fact that few terms reveal so sharply the outlines of their development.

From Madrid, on the sixteenth of October, 1936, came the following wireless to the New York *Times,* by its correspondent William P. Carney:

> Police last night began a house-to-house search for Rebels in Madrid. . . . Orders for these raids . . . apparently were instigated by a recent broadcast over the Rebel radio station by General Emilio Mola. He stated he was counting on four columns of troops outside Madrid and another column of persons hiding within the city who would join the invaders as soon as they entered the capital.[1]

What is probably the first printed allusion in English to the now famous Fifth Column paradoxically did not even mention the term. Later dispatches were more specific. Franco and Mola were reported on October 17 to be counting on the support of those Madrileños who had voted rightist in the last election. 'Prudence,' adds the correspondent, 'counsels the government to forestall as far as possible the activities of this "fifth column." '[2] And on October 20, in a dispatch from Valencia again mentioning the original broadcast, 'fifth column' was reported as the watchword there.[3]

Obviously the expression enjoyed its first great success as a Loyalist battle-cry; it was not the first time that enemy slogans have been shouted back with enthusiasm at their authors. But something else may have contributed, unconsciously, to its catching on: the existence side by side in Madrid of the Fifth Column and the communist Fifth Regiment.[4] The latter was probably the most active army unit on the Loyalist side in the early days of the war, and the two 'fifths' unquestionably suggested more than a casual similarity.

Unfortunately the words that went out on the air that October day have vanished as completely as the medium that bore them; the only quoted radio address by Mola at about the time in question was on Oc-

1. Page 2, col. 2.
2. New York *Times,* Oct. 17, 1936, page 9, col. 4.
3. *Ibid.,* Oct. 20, 1936, page 15, col. 3.
4. 'The Communist "fifth regiment," which is really an army twenty-five thousand strong,' Louis Fischer in *Nation,* Oct. 31, 1936, page 511, col. 1.

tober 19, and contains no reference to 'fifth column.'[5] We can cite hearsay, but Mola's own phrasing is gone. Yet there seems to be proof that his inspiration antedated the preparation of that speech. The Spanish Library of Information, in the person of its director, Javier Gaytán de Ayala, generously cabled our question to Spain, and transmits this reply: 'General Mola, when asked by newspapermen which of four advancing columns would take Madrid, replied "the fifth." ' Such a surprise answer sharpens considerably the point of the epigram, and we may suppose Mola later using it for the broadcasts with which he celebrated his appointment by Franco to commandership of the forces moving upon Madrid from the north, south, and west.

But equally as important as its origin is the transfer of Fifth Column to *fifth column.* How did a historical proper noun come to signify any community of traitors? Three steps can be traced: Ernest Hemingway's popularization of the term in its original sense; the first imaginative extension of it to another use; and the repetition of Spanish history in the invasion of Norway.

Hemingway completed 'The Fifth Column,' his first play, at the Florida Hotel in Madrid on November 14, 1937. Though not produced on Broadway until two years later, it doubtless crystallized the expression in the minds of the relatively few in this country who thought of the Spanish war in terms of a wider conflict. One of these was Henry C. Wolfe, whose article on 'Hitler's "Fifth Columns" ' appeared in the *New Republic* on June 29, 1938—probably the first use of *fifth column* in its present sense. Mr. Wolfe does not recall that it was suggested by anyone else.

Fifth column led a precarious existence up to the fall of 1939. Its infrequent appearances were mostly confined to the pages of the *Nation* and the *New Republic:*

July 23, 1938: 'Hitler's Fifth Column in America.' *Nation.*
Feb. 4, 1939: 'Labor's Fifth Column.' *Nation.*
June 7, 1939: 'Moseley of the Fifth Column.' *New Republic.*
Dec. 23, 1939: ' "Fifth Column" in the Treasury.' *Nation.*

With so restricted a public and so intermittent a use, *fifth column* was due to become just another nonce-word. Two accidents rescued it.

The first was the production of Hemingway's play, which familiarized

5. Examined in *Diario de Costa Rica,* San José, Oct. 20, 1936, and *La Hora,* San José, Oct. 19, 1936. Apparently not used in U. S. papers. The staff of the *New Masses* credits the original speech to General Queipo de Llano, casting doubt (though not by specific mention of his name) on the whole attribution to Mola. This is lent plausibility by the fact that Queipo de Llano was really the radio mouthpiece of the Rebels. Agreement on Mola, however, is too general, and too close, in the reports given, to the actual date of the speech, to admit of taking the objection seriously.

New York with it at precisely the moment of the second accident, the invasion of Norway. In this manner was enlisted the power of the New York agencies, which spread *fifth column* over the pages of every subscribing newspaper in the country and onto the air waves as well.

To Leland Stowe, according to *Nation* researcher Doris Wolson, goes the credit for precipitating *fifth column* as a word in the news. He, 'reporting the Norwegian campaign for the Chicago *Daily News,* attributed the fall of Norway to its *fifth column* of Quislings and others.' His scoop is reported in *Time,* April 22, 1940, a week after press and radio had taken up the cry.[6] The transfer was immediate and complete: fifth columns were discovered in Holland, Belgium, and France, and dug up by the domestic workings of the Dies Committee in the United States. For a brief time—until about the end of 1940—the supremacy of *fifth column* was disputed by the Russian-born *Trojan horse;* but the Spanish phrase has prevailed, perhaps in part because of the discussion provoked by the apparent riddle of its meaning. The greatest tribute to its vitality is the fact that it has survived the clipping tendency of the news. Shortest thus far: 'Cuba Outlaws "5th." '[7]

Fifth column has become, next to *blitzkrieg,* the most firmly rooted addition of recent years to the English vocabulary; and *fifth column,* unlike *blitzkrieg,* has made its way without the raucous support of the German propaganda machine and without the sound-suggestiveness of *blitz* to clear a path for it—has even invaded the pulps, where 'Fifth Column Stories' was announced as the title of a new magazine. A strange immortality for the one-time police chief of Madrid, Emilio Mola, who died in an airplane crash on June 3, 1937, never having effected a junction with that Fifth Column which he proclaimed.

---

6. 'Hitler's fifth column in Norway,' radio broadcast from Europe, April 14, 1940. 'Balkans Move to Stamp Out Nazi Fifth Columns,' Topeka *Capital,* April 19, 1940, page 15, col. 8.

7. Topeka *Capital,* Jan. 30, 1941, page 13, col. 6.

BIBL. LONDIN. UNIV.

PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTION*

Radio Symposium: American War and Peace Aims, November 12, 1943. The speakers are Senator Carl A. Hatch, born in Kirwin, Kansas, in 1889, Professor Robert M. MacIver, born in Stornoway, Scotland, in 1882, and Representative Clare E. Hoffman, born in Vicksburg, Pa., in 1875.

Senator Hatch: ðɪ ˈkwɛstʃn̩ əˈsaɪnd| tə ˈmiːɪ| ʍɪtʃ hæz ˈdʒʌst bɪn ˈsteɪtɪd baɪ ðə ˈtʃɛɚmən| hæz ˈrisn̩tlɪ bɪn ˈʔæ̃ⁿsɚd ˌoʊvəˈʍɛlmɪŋlɪ ˈbaɪ| ˈboʊθ ˈbrɛntʃɪz əv aʊɚ ˈgʌvɚnmənt|| ɔn sɛpˈtɛmbɚ ˈtwɛntɪˈfɚst ðɪ ˈhaʊs əv ˌrɛpɚˈzɛntətɪvz| baɪ ə məˈdʒɔɚəɾɪ əv ˈθri ˈhʌndrəd ˈsɪkstɪ tʊ ˈnaɪnˈtin| ˈpæ̈st ðə ˈfʊˈbraɪt ˌrɛzəˈluʃn̩|| ˈðæt ˌrɛzəˈluʃn̩ əˈfɚmətɪvlɪ ʔãⁿsɚd ðə ˈkwɛstʃn̩|| ə ˈʃɔɚt ˈtaɪm ˈleɪtɚ ðə ˈsɛnət ˈfɔɚən əˈfɛɚz kəˈmɪɾɪ| priˈzɛntɪd eɪ ˈsɪmɪlə ˌrɛzəˈluʃn̩|| . . . ʍaɪl ðə ˈsɛnət ˌrɛzəˈluʃn̩ wəz ˈʌndɚ diˈbeɪt| ˈsɛkʳᵊtɛɚɪ əv ˈsteɪt ˈkɔɚˌdɛl ˈhʌəl| ɔn ðɪ ˈʌðə ˈsaɪd əv ðə ˈwɝld ɪn ˈmɔskoʊ| ˈsaɪnd ən əˈgrimənt wɪð ˈbrɪtn̩| ˈrʌʃə ənd ˈtʃaɪnə| ˈrɛkɪgnaɪzɪŋ ðə nəˈsɛsəti əv əˈstæblɪʃɪŋ ət ðə ˈɝlɪɪst ˈpræktəkəbl ˈdeɪt| eɪ ˈdʒɛnɚl ˌɪntɚˈnæʃnəl ˌɔɚgənəˈzeɪʃn̩| ˈbeɪst ɔn ðə ˈprɪnsᵊpl əv ˈsʊvɚn iˈkwɑləɾɪ əv ˈɔl ˈpiːs ˈlʌvɪŋ ˈsteɪts| ænd ˈoʊpn̩ tʊ ˈmɛmbɚʃɪp baɪ ˈɔl ˈsʌtʃ ˈsteɪts| ˈlɑɚdʒ ænd ˈsmɔl fɔɚ ðə ˈmɛ̃ĩntənəns əv ˌɪntɚˈnæʃnəl ˈpiːs ænd sɪˈkjʊɚətɪ|| . . .

Professor MacIver:** wi ˈθɔt ðət ðə ˈdip ən ˈbrɔd ˈoʃnz̨ wəd əv ˈkɛpt əs əˈpɑrt| bət ðɪ ˈɛərpleɪmz̨| həv ˈtʌrnd ðə ˈoʃən ɪntʊ ə ˈleɪk| . . . ˈkrɔs bɪˈtwin ðə ˈraɪzɪŋ| ənd ðə ˈsɛtɪŋ əv ðə ˈsʌn|| tu ˈmit ðə ˈnju kənˈdɪʃənz̨| wi ˈnid ə ˈnju ˈwʌrld ˈɔrdər| ə ˈnju ˈwʌrld ˌɔrgənəˈseɪʃən|| ðɛr ɑər ˈsʌm ˈvɛrɪ ɪmˈpɔrtənt ˈmatərz̨| ˈoʊnlɪ ə ˈkɑmən ˈgʌvɚmənt əv ðə ˈneɪʃənz̨ kæn ˈdil ˈwɪð| sʌtʃ az̨| ðə ˌrɛgjʊˈleɪʃən əv ˌɪntɚˈnaʃənəl ˈkɛrənsɪ ənd ˌɪntɚˈnaʃənəl ˈtʃɛks| ðə ˈmɛ̃ĩntənəns əv ˈfri ənd ˈfɛər ˈmɑrkəts ənd . . . ˈrɔ məˈtɪrɪəlz̨|| ðə kənˈtroʊl əv ˈkɑrtɛlz̨| ən ˈʌðər ˈkaindz̨ əv ikəˈnɒmɪk ɪmˈpɪərɪəlɪzm|| ðɪ ɒpəˈreɪʃən əv ə ˈgreɪt ˌɪntɚˈnaʃənəl|| . . . ðə ˈkɒŋkwɛst ʌv dɪˈsiz̨| ən ðə prəˈvɛnʃən əv ɪts ˈsprɛd frəm ˈkʌntrɪ tu ˈkʌntrɪ|| ˈænd| ðə ˈsɛtl̩mənt əv dɪsˈpjuts bɪˈtwin ˈsteɪts|| ˈaʊr ˈfeɪljər tu ˈsɛt ʌp ə ˈkɒmən ɒˈθɒrɪtɪ| tu ˈrɛgjəleɪt ˈðiz ˈlɑrdʒ ˈɪʃuz̨| ˈʃouz̨| ðət ˈaʊər pəˈlɪtɪkl̩ ˌɪnstɪˈtjuʃənz̨| ɑr ˈlægɪŋ ˈsadlɪ biˈhaind ðə rəˈkwaˈəmənts əv ðə ˌsɪvɪlɪˈseɪʃən| ˈɪn ˈʍɪtʃ ˈwi ˈlɪv|| . . .

Representative Hoffman: ˈfɛlou əˈmɛɚəkənz| ðə ˈkwɛstʃn̩ səbˈmɪtəd tə ˈmi ˈɪz| ʃud ðə juˈnaɪtɪd ˈsteɪts ˈmɛ̃ĩnˈtɛ̃ĩn ˈeɪ ˈpɑləsɪ əv ˌĩndɪˈpɛ̃ndənt ˈˈnæ̃ʃnəlɪzm|| ɪn ˈðæt ˈkwɛstʃn̩| ðə ˈwɝd ˌĩndɪˈpɛ̃ndənt ˈmĩnz| ˈnɑ̃t

---

* This transcription was made from a phonograph recording of part of the radio broadcast.

** [r] as pronounced by this speaker is a 'Scottish rolled' *r*, and [z̨] is an unvoiced sound produced with strong pressure of breath.

sʌbˈɔɚdnət ɔɚ ˈsʌbdʒɪkt ˈtu| nɔɚ diˈpẽndənt fɔɚ səˈpoɚt əˈpɒn ˈɛnɪ ˈʌðɚ ˈgʌvɚmənt|| ðə ˈwɝd ˈnãʃnəlɪzm| ˈmĩnz dɪˈvouʃn̩ ˈtu| ænd ˈædvəkəsɪ ˈʌv| ˈnãʃnəl ˈĩntrəsts| ˈnãʃnəl ˈjunətɪ| ãnd ˌĩndɪˈpẽndəns|| ðə ˈkwɛstʃn̩ ˈðẽn ˈɪz| ʃud ðɪ juˈnaɪrɪd ˈsteɪts mẽĩnˈtẽĩn ˈeɪ ˈpɑləsɪ| ʍɪtʃ ɪz ˈnɑt diˈpẽndənt əˈpɒn| nɔɚ ˈsʌbdʒɪkt tu kənˈtroul baɪ ˈʌðɚ ˈneɪʃn̩z|| ʃud wi mẽĩnˈtẽĩn ə ˈpɑləsɪ əv dɪˈvouʃn̩ tu ˈɑɚ ˈnãʃnəl ˈĩntrəsts| eɪ ˈpɑləsɪ əv ˈnãʃnəl ˈjunətɪ| ænd ˌĩndɪˈpẽndəns|| ˈmaɪ ˈænsɚ tə ˈðæt ˈkwɛstʃn̩ ɪz ən ɪmˈfætɪk ˈjɛs|| fɔɚ ˈhɪstrɪ ˈʃouz| ðət ðə ˈneɪʃn̩ ʍɪtʃ ɪz səˈbɔɚdənət| ʍɪtʃ ɪz ˈsʌbdʒɪkt ˈtu| ɔɚ diˈpẽnɾənt fɔɚ səˈpoɚt əˈpɒən| əˈnʌðɚ ˈgʌvɚmənt| huz ˈpipl ʔɑɚ ˈnũt dɪˈvoutəd ˈtu| hu du ˈnũt ʔæᵈvokeɪt ðə ˈnãʃnəl ˈĩntrəst| ˈnãʃnəl ˈjunəɾɪ| æn ˌĩndɪˈpẽndəns| wɪl ˈpɛɚɪʃ ʔæz ə ˈneɪʃn̩|| . . .

Discussion. Hatch: ʔaɪ æm ɪn ˈfeɪvɚ əv ˌriəˈstæblɪʃɪŋ ðɪ ˈlig əv ˈneɪʃn̩z wɪð ˈnɛsəsɚɪ ˈtʃeɪndʒɪz|| aɪ əˈspɛʃəlɪ ˈfeɪvɚ ˈðɪs bɪˈkɔz əz ə ˈmætɚ əv ˈfækᵗ ðə ˈlig əv ˈneɪʃn̩z wz ˈbɔɚn ɪn ði juˈnaɪtəd ˈsteɪts|| ɪts ˈpë̈ɚənts ɑɚ əˈmɛɚəkn̩ ˈpɛɾɚənts|| ðə ˈlig wəz diˈzɚtəd ənd ˈlɛft ə ˈfaundlɪŋ ɔn ðə ˈdoɚsteps əv ˈwɔɚɪŋ ˈneɪʃn̩z əv ˈjuɚəp|| ˈaɪ wud ˈlaɪk tə ˈsi ɪt ˌriəˈstæblɪʃt wɪð ɪts ˈoun ˈpɛɚənts| ˈteɪkɪŋ ðɛɚ ˈraɪtfl ˈpɑɚt n̩ ˈpleɪs ɪn ɪts ˈnɚtʃɚ| ænd dɪˈvɛləpmənt||

MacIver: ˈaɪ əˈgri| aɪ əˈgri ˈvɛrɪ ˈmʌtʃ wɪð ʍʌt| ˈsɛnətə ˈhætʃ həz| ˈdʒʌsᵗ ˈsɛd|| æz ˈlɒŋ əz wi ˈʌndəˈstænd ðə ˈwãrd ˌriəˈstæblɪʃt| ɪn ə| pəˈtɪkjʊləlɪ ˈstrɔŋ ˈsɛns|| ˈðɛn aɪ ˈθɪŋk wi ɑ ˈhɑpɪ təˈgɛðə||

Hatch: meɪ aɪ seɪ ə ˈwɝd| tu ju ðət wəz ˈprɑmptəd baɪ ˈkã^{n}grəsmən ˈhɒfmənz əˈdrɛs|| wɛɚ hi rɪˈpitədlɪ ˈstrɛst ðə ˈfækᵗ ðət ˈðɪs ˈkʌntrɪ| ən ˈʌðɚ ˈneɪʃn̩z prəˈpouzd| ˈplænd ˈsʌm ˈsɔt əv ə ˌsʌbˈɔɚdnənsɪ əv ˈðɪs ˈneɪʃn̩| tu ˈʌðɚ ˈneɪʃn̩z əv ðə ˈwəld|| ˈaɪ diˈnaɪ ˈðæt ˈpɑzətɪvlɪ| ənd ˈflætlɪ|| ˈaɪ ˈseɪ ðət ðə ˈbɛst ˈweɪ ɪn ðə ˈwɝld tə prəˈzɚv ðə ˈsɑvɚntɪ| əv ðə juˈnaɪtəd ˈsteɪts ˈneɪʃn̩| ɪz tu pɚˈtɛkt| ʌˈgɛnst| ɪts dɪˈstrʌkʃn̩| ænd ɪnˈveɪzn̩ æz wəz ˈdʌn ət ˈpəl ˈhɑɾbɚ| ɪn diˈsɛmbɚ||

Hoffman: ˈaɪ ˈkænət əˈgri| wɪð ðə ˈsɛnətɚ biˈkɔz| ɪn ʔɛvrɪ ˈwɔɚ ɪn wɪtʃ ˈɑɚ ˈkʌntrɪ hæz ʔɛvɚ biˈkʌm ɪnˈvɑlᵛd əkˈsɛpt ˈwʌn| ən aɪ rəˈfɚ tə ðə ˈsɪvəl ˈwɔɚ| ðə ˈkɔz hæz bɪn| ɪn ði ˈʌðɚ ˈwɝld ði ˈould ˈwɝld|| ənd ʌnˈtɪl ðeɪ kæn| ˈlɪv ɪn ˈpis ʔʌˈmʌŋ ðɛmˈsɛlvz| aɪ kən si ˈnou ˈrizn ʍaɪ ˈwi ʃud bi ˈdrægd ˈɪn| tu ˈsɛrl| ˈðɛɚ ˈkwɔɚlz| æz ˈwɛl maɪt wi bi ʔæst| tu biˈkʌm ə ˈpɑɚtnɚ wɪð ðəm ɪn ʔɛvrɪθɪŋ ən ˈɛvrɪ ˈtaɪm ˈɛnɪ ˈwʌn əv ðəm ˈgɛts ɪntə ˈtrʌbl| wiɚ tə ˈfaɪt ðə ˈbærl ənd ˈpeɪ ðə ˈkɔst||

Hatch: ˈhɪstrɪ hæz ˈdɛmənˌstreɪtəd kənˈklusəvlɪ| wɪðɪn ˈwʌn ˌdʒɛnəˈreɪʃn̩| ðæt ˈðɪs ˈkʌntrɪ wɪl ˈˈhæf tu ˈfaɪt| ʍɛn ˈwɝld ˈwɔz ˈkʌm| æz ðeɪ ˈhæv ˈkʌm ˈˈtwaɪs|| ˈwi ˈˈhæv wɪðˈdrɔn| wi əv ˈtraɪd aɪsəˈleɪʃn̩|

Hoffman: bət wi ˈgɑt ˈbæk ˈˈɪn| ˈsɛnətɚ||

Hatch: æ::nd wɪɚ ˈpeːɪːŋ ðə ˈblʌd əv ˈɑɚ ˈsʌnz fɔɚ ˈˈðæt| . . .

Hoffman: biˈkɔz wi stʌk ˈɑɚ ˈnouz ɪn ˈould ˈwɝld əˈfɛɾɚz| ˈkɑ̃nˌtrɝɪ tə ðɪ ədˈvaɪs əv ˈɑɚ ˈfɝst ˈgreɪt ˈsteɪtsmən ən ˈprɛzədənt| biˈkɔz wi ˈkæ̃ⁿt əˈtɛ̃nd tu ˈauɚ ˈˈoun ˈbɪznəs ən ˈlɛt ˈpipl əˈtɛn tə ˈðɛɚz||

MacIver: ˈaɪ əˈgri əˈgɛn wɪð ˈsɛnətɚ ˈhætʃ|| ðə ˈdeɪ ʍən wi kəd ˈtɔk əˈbɑt ɪnˈtæŋglɪŋ əˈlaɪnsɪz ɪz ˈpɑst| biˈkɔz wi ˈkænt ˈkip ˈɑut əv ˈwɔːrz| ˈðɛ bɪˈgɪm|| wɪ ər ˈɔl ˈtu ˈtaɪd ʌp fɔr ət ɪn ðə ˈlɑst ˈtu ˌdʒɛnəˈreɪʃn̩z|| . . .

Hatch: aɪ wz ˈgoɪn tə ˈkwoʊt ðɪ rɪˈpʌblɪkən ˈpɑɚtɪ ˈnæʃnəl ˈplætfɔm fɔɚ ˈkɑ̃grəsmən ˈhɒfmən|

Hoffman: ˈʔaɪm səˈpraɪzd tə hɪɚ ðə ˈsɛnətɚ rəˈfɝ tə ˈðæt bɪˈkɔz| ˈʔɔlˈmous kənˈtɪnjuəslɪ hi dɪsəˈgriz wɪð ˈʔɛnɪθɪŋ rəˈpʌbləkənz ˈˈseɪ|| ənd ˈˈnau hi wɔnts tə ˈkwoʊt ðə ˈwɝdz əv ˈsʌm ˈmæn huz ˈdɛd| əv ən ˌædmɪnəsˈtreɪʃn̩ ʍɪtʃ hiz ˈˈɔlwɪz ɪnˈsɪstɪd wəz ə ˈfeɪljɚ||

Hatch: aɪ ˈsɛd ðə rɪˈpʌblɪkən ˈnæʃnəl ˈˈplætfɔm| ˈkɑ̃grəsmən| ˈju ˈdɪd ˈnɑt ˈʌndəˈstænd||

This transcription was prepared with the assistance of the following students in Phonetics in Teachers College, Columbia University: B. Gottlieb, E. Grabson, E. Quiros, A. Reyes, M. Vandaveer, and N. Young.

EDITORIALS AND REVIEWS

COMPLETING THE RECORD

THAT HUGE work, *A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles,* gives us a record of English words from century to century so rich and full that its users seldom have reason to complain of its incompleteness. And yet in fact it may fail to record the earliest occurrence of a word, or may skip many years in the historical record of occurrences, or may even leave out a word altogether. Moreover, new words are always springing up, and many of them have been added to the permanent vocabulary of English in the last decade. In truth, the labors of a lexicographer are never done, and English lexical study is a field so vast that the student welcomes Sir William Craigie's tract,[1] in which the work now under way is surveyed and a few examples of its fruits are listed, now with, now without discussion.

Sir William begins by calling attention to certain period dictionaries: those devoted to Older Scottish, to American English, to Middle English, and to early Modern English. The second of these is now happily completed; the other three, however, still have a long way to go. The work on the *Dictionary of American English* revealed many deficiencies in the *NED* record. In particular, two-word collocations like *dry goods* were often represented inadequately or not at all in the Big Oxford. The author also calls attention to the gaps in the technical and scientific vocabulary, gaps which must be filled by special dictionaries, since a general dictionary, however large, cannot be expected to include the millions of words current among limited groups of people, the jargon of the various learned and technological branches, each a closed book to all but the initiated.

The bulk of the tract under review, however, deals with the general vocabulary. Systematic reading of literary works, periodicals, letters, etc., this and that source of information neglected, for one reason or another, by the readers (paid and unpaid) who collected the quotations for the *NED,* has brought to light many examples which help to complete the dictionary record of a number of words and collocations in general use. The author lists a number of these (pp. 283-301) by way of illustration, with appropriate quotations, and he discusses (pp. 273-282) a few representatives of various categories: politics and government; religion and education; language, literature and music; social and family life; trade, business, and finance; buildings; country life; nautical and naval mat-

1. *Completing the Record of English.* By William A. Craigie. S. P. E. Tract No. LVIII. Oxford, 1941. 40 pp.

ters; military matters; miscellaneous names. The booklet ends with three pages on J. Mortimer's *The Whole Art of Husbandry,* a mine of information which must be used with great caution, because of the changes made in it in successive editions, from 1707 onwards, and because of the author's incorporation of matter from older works, matter which does not always agree with Mortimer's own linguistic usage. The discussion of Mortimer's book serves to illustrate the perils that beset a seeker for the facts of usage in bygone days. The tract as a whole reads well and throws light on important problems of English lexicography.

KEMP MALONE

The Johns Hopkins University

PHONETIC CLASSIFICATION

PHONETIC THEORISTS have usually confined their studies to the vocal sounds used in linguistic systems, or even to those used in some particular language. The author of the present volume[1] has developed an analphabetic scheme for the classification of all vocal sounds, from Hottentot clicks to Bronx cheers. The utility of such a scheme is obvious. No language utilizes the complete vocal resources of any part of the vocal mechanism; the theoretical linguist and the speech correctionist alike will find Pike's scheme a most useful aid to perspective.

The classification provides means for indicating the productive mechanism (percussion, air-stream, etc.), the controlling mechanism, the phonetic function, etc., a classification detailed enough to cover two pages (pp. 154-55) in summary. The classes are, in the main, adequate and clearly defined, with only occasional lapses and uncertainties.

Perhaps the most serious lapse is the neglect of the tension of vowels. Though it is true that a tense vowel has a narrower aperture, from side to side, than a lax vowel, and that the author uses 'narrow' and 'wide' in this sense, nevertheless the narrowness of a tense vowel is incidental to the muscular tension with which the vowel is formed. The variable muscular tension is an important feature of English articulation, as anyone well knows who has ever tried to teach English [i] and [ɪ], for example, to foreigners.

The author evidently does not realize all the implications of the fortis-lentis classification when he writes (p. 129):

---

1. *Phonetics: a Critical Analysis of Phonetic Theory and a Technic for the Practical Description of Sounds.* By Kenneth L. Pike. (University of Michigan Publications, Language and Literature, Vol. XXI.) Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1943. ix, 182 pp.

In order to separate usage in regard to articulatory, acoustic, and contextual data, this study will use 'fortis' and 'lenis' of articulation only; 'loud' and 'soft' of acoustic judgments as regards an assumed norm of loudness; 'contextually loud' to show acoustic judgments of the relation of one sound to another in context. Thus the hissing of English [s] is loud, but not fortis, in comparison with [z]; the lingual strictures seem to be the same (hence neither fortis nor lenis), but the noise of the hissing of the [s] is louder because it has a stronger air stream at the lingual stricture (the partial glottal closure for voicing reduces the strength of the air stream for [z]).

It should be evident that the stronger air stream requires stronger resistance from the articulators, in order to maintain the aperture at the proper size for [s], and that this extra muscular resistance necessarily makes [s] fortis in contrast to the lenis [z]. The same principle applies to all other voiceless-voiced pairs in English.

For spatial variation in the formation of vowels, the author uses the familiar references to region of tongue, and to high, mid, and low placement, with open and close modifications. This does not carry the classification quite as far as others, notably Peterson[2] and Joos,[3] have done, but is probably adequate for all but the most minute dialectal classification.

There is a typographically faulty [ɜ] on p. 75, a faulty [ø] for [Φ] on p. 113. These defects and the doubtful details already mentioned are, however, of minor importance, and can readily be remedied in subsequent editions. The book as a whole should be a most useful reference for students of language.

C. K. Thomas

Cornell University

---

2. *Maître Phonétique,* April 1933.
3. *Maître Phonétique,* July 1933.

BIBLIOGRAPHY*

PRESENT DAY ENGLISH

JOSEPH JONES
E. BAGBY ATWOOD
University of Texas

Aids for Americans in mastering the English language; list of British and American synonyms. *Am. City,* 58: 48. Nov. 1943.

Alexeyev, M. P. The English language in Russia. *English* 4: 153–55. Summer 1943.

Allen, Beatrice E. Dictionary of the church year. N.Y.: Nat'l Council Protestant Episcopal Church, 1943. 16 pp.

American Notes & Queries, Vol. 3 (Sep.-Nov. 1943).

Alibist (119), *AMGOT* and *AMG* (86), *blackout* (127), *bondadiers* (87), *carteleer* (119), *collision mats* (pancakes) (100), *copasetic* (91), *Coventrate* (119), cries of crap shooters (111–12), *dazzledust* (87), *foodacco* ('medium of exchange in surplus foods') (86), *freckles* (101), *globerish* (101), *grumlins* (87), *guestimate* (101), *hangar geese* (100), *hosey* (110), *to kick upstairs* (87), nicknames for Americans (94), *pogled* (119), *pumpernickel* (89–90), *scholar's companion* (110), *triphibian* (119), *tunket* (89), *utility hat* (101), *wolf line* (101).

Another language. New York: Linguaphone Institute, 1943 etc.

This quarterly trade publication, now in its third volume, contains many short items of linguistic interest.

Baker, S. J. The influence of American slang on Australia. *Am. Sp.,* 18: 253-56. Dec. 1943.

Basic English. Discussions appear in *Am. Mag.,* 136: 134 (Dec. 1943); *Life,* 15: 57–58 (Oct. 18, 1943; *Nat. Geog. Mag.,* 84: 700 (Dec. 1943); *Newsweek,* 22: 90 (Nov. 15, 1943); *Printer's Ink,* 204: 21–22 (Sep. 24, 1943), 205: 26 (Oct. 15, 1943): *Rotarian,* 63: 28–31 (Dec. 1943); *Sat. Rev. Lit.,* Oct. 23, 1943, p. 13, Nov. 13, 1943, p. 11; *Scholastic,* 43: 11–12 (Nov. 15, 1943); *School Rev.,* 51: 519–20 (Nov. 1943); *Sci. Digest,* 14: 1–3 (Dec. 1943).

Beard, Charles A. The republic: conversations on fundamentals. N.Y.: Viking, 1943.

Contains (pp. 29–33) a semasiological history of the word *democracy* in English.

Bender, J. F., comp. NBC handbook of pronunciation. N.Y.: Crowell, 1943. 302 pp.

Pronunciations are standard American and are given in both diacritics and phonetic symbols. War terms and names not found in dictionaries are prominent.

Bolinger, D. L. Among the new words. *Am. Sp.,* 18: 301–305. Dec. 1943.

Carrier chatter [slang]. *Collier's,* 112: 33. Nov. 27, 1943.

Chrétien, Charles Douglas. Quantitative method for determining linguistic relationships: interpretation of results and tests of significance. Berkeley: Univ. of California Press, 1943. Pp. 11–19.

Crane, C. E. Comments on words as tools. *Eastern Underwriter,* 44: 8. Oct. 22, 1943.

Current English forum. *College English,* 5: 100–101. Nov. 1943.

Davis, Edwin B. English stress accent. *College English,* 5: 136–41. Dec. 1943.

On the problem of where to place the accent.

Dizzy Dean dictionary and what's what in baseball. St. Louis: Falstaff Brewing Corp., 1943. 25 pp.

Esar, Evan. Esar's comic dictionary. N.Y.: Harvest House, 1943. 313 pp.

Comic items—puns, etc.—arranged alphabetically with cross-references.

Fujita, Mintaro, ed. Kenkyushe's English-Japanese dictionary of commercial

---

* Many of the items in this bibliography have been supplied by a committee of readers. We wish to acknowledge for this issue the assistance of Mamie Meredith, I. W. Russell, F. F. Seely, Robert Wadsworth.

and technical terms, American edition. South Pasadena, Calif.: P. D. and Ione Perkins, 1943. 1220 pp.

Fuller, Edmund, ed. Thesaurus of epigrams. N.Y.: Crown, 1943.

Goad, Harold. International English. *English*, 4: 120–22. Spring 1943.
On the changes which English may undergo if it becomes more international.

Jones, William Powell. Practical word study. N.Y.: Oxford, 1943. 100 pp.

Lewis, Norman. Power with words. N.Y.: Crowell, 1943. 346 pp.
A treatise on vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation.

Marie, J. S. F. English-Spanish, Spanish-English dental vocabulary, including many medical terms. Lancaster, Pa.: Jacques Cattell Press, 1943. 167 pp.

Notes & Queries, Vol. 185 (Oct. 9–23, 1943).
Triphibian (239): 'indefensible, but . . . it looks as if it may survive'; 'My hat!' and 'My sacred aunt!' as exclamations (268).

Nurnberg, M. Out of this word. *Good Housekeeping*, 117: 30. Dec. 1943.

Ostrow, A. A. Service men's slang. *Am. Mercury*, 57: 552–56. Nov. 1943.
Our uniformed men borrow from jive for their lingo.

Partridge, Eric. Words from the war. N.Y. *Times Mag.*, Oct. 3, 1943, p. 29.
A two-column article on the effect of the war on language.

Pink, M. Alderton. Problems in the teaching of English. *English*, 4: 155-57. Summer 1943.

Pound, Louise, ed. Miscellany. *Am. Sp.*, 18: 306–10. Dec. 1943.

Rogers, Clement F. The definition of words. *Quart. Rev.*, 281: 211–23. Oct. 1943.

Sebeok, T. A. German travellers and language in America. *Am. Sp.*, 18: 279–82. Dec. 1943.

Stephenson, Herbert John. Abbrevs. N.Y.: Macmillan, 1943. vii, 126 pp.
A dictionary of abbreviations.

Sylvester, A. H. Place-naming in the Northwest. *Am. Sp.*, 18: 241–52. Dec. 1943.

Thompson, D. For words with more meaning. *Ladies' Home Jour.*, 60: 6. Nov. 1943.

Thompson, Elizabeth H., ed. A.L.A. glossary of library terms. Chicago: Amer. Library Assn., 1943. 170 pp.

Tresidder, Argus. The sounds of Virginia speech. *Am. Sp.*, 18: 261–72. Dec. 1943.

Viney, Johnny, pseud. Sailors are gobs of fun, Hattie; the salty letters of a sailor to his girl friend; including dictionary of Navy slang. N.Y.: M. S. Mill, 1943.

Ward-Jackson, C. H. It's a piece of cake. London: Simpkin, 1943.
On war slang.

Wells, H. W. Kipling's barrack-room language. *Am. Sp.*, 18: 273–78. Dec. 1943.

Wiles, A. G. D. and others. English for the armed forces. N.Y.: Harper, 1943.

Withington, Robert. Transplanted names. *College English*, 5: 80–84. Nov. 1943.
On the American pronunciation of imported proper names.

PHONETICS

S. N. Treviño
University of Chicago

Bonner, M. R. Changes in the speech pattern under emotional tension. *Amer. Jour. Psych.*, 56: 262–73. 1943.
No single element of speech reveals how emotion is conveyed. But under tension, the average pitch is higher, the syllables and pauses are longer, and the attacks are harder than in normal conditions.

Bucklew, J., Jr. An exploratory study in the psychology of speech reception. *Jour. Experimental Psych.*, 32: 473–94. June 1943.
Three experiments dealing with the time of response to concrete and remote situations when speech is purposely distorted. The more concrete the situation, the more distortion of speech can be introduced without lengthening the time of response.

Cole, E. M. Language problems in children. *Hygeia*, 21: 301–302. Apr. 1943.

How children acquire and develop their speech.

Davis, E. B. Voiced *détentes. French Rev.*, 17: 36–39. Oct. 1943.
Ear analysis of the pronunciation of numerous isolated words by three subjects and discussion of the results.

Diringer, D. The origins of the alphabet. *Antiquity*, no. 66, pp. 77–90. June 1943.
Theories and reports of recent research.

Fowler, E. P. A simple method of measuring percentage of capacity for hearing speech: Fundamental factors in setting up a standard. *Archives of Otolaryngology*, 36: 874–90. 1942.

Funke, E. Phonetics and recent developments in language study. *Mod. Lang. Jour.*, 27: 419–25. Oct. 1943.
On the developments of phonetics as an applied and an experimental science in language study and teaching.

Gardner, M. B. How well do I hear? *Bell Laboratories Record*, 22: 6–11. Sep. 1943.
Explains and discusses the data obtained by the United States Public Health Service of the extent and the degree of hearing loss of the country's overall population. Includes average audiograms for various types of hearing abilities.

Griesman, B. L. Mechanism of phonation demonstrated by planigraphy of the larynx. *Archives of Otolaryngology*, 38: 17–26. July 1943.
Discusses the mechanism of phonation in the light of photographs of the vocal cords taken while singing notes of various pitches and in whispering.

Gross, D. Investigations concerning vital capacity. *Am. Heart Jour.*, 25: 335–43. Mar. 1943.

Hall, R. A., Jr. Occurrence and orthographical representation of phonemes in Brazilian Portuguese. *Studies in Linguistics*, 2: 6–13. 1943.
Tabular list and discussion.

Hefler, A. R., and Thompson, F. R. *Seseo vs.* θ in the classroom. *Mod. Lang. Jour.*, 27: 500–501. Nov. 1943.
'It appears most logical that we should adopt the *seseo* as being the most common characteristic of the pronunciation of the Spanish spoken in Latin America.'

Hirsh, I. J. A brief history of the systems used to represent English sounds. *Quart. Jour. Speech*, 29: 334–42. Oct. 1943.
Includes some interesting charts and illustrations from John Wilkins' *Essay*, 1668.

Lehmann, W. P., and Heffner, R.-M. S. Notes on the length of vowels (VI). *Am. Sp.*, 18: 208–15. Oct. 1943.
A statistical comparison of the duration of vowels before stops as pronounced by the two investigators. Vowels are longer before a voiced stop than before a voiceless stop. The lengthening of vowels is probably inversely related to the frequency of occurrence of the checking consonant.

Munson, W. A. How little do we hear? *Bell Laboratories Record*, 21: 341–46. June 1943.

Navarro Tomás, T. Spanish pronunciation and intonation exercises. London: Linguaphone Institute, 1939.
Now available from Linguaphone in New York with five phonograph records containing the exercises in Professor Navarro's *Manual de pronunciación española* and spoken by him.

——. Ejercicios fonéticos.
Four phonograph records containing the vowel and consonant exercises in the author's *Manual*. Obtainable from Middlebury College.

——, and Aguilera, Francisco. The Spanish sounds.
One phonograph record giving models of Castilian and Spanish American (Chilean) pronunciation. Obtainable from Linguaphone.

Pike, K. L. Phonetics: A critical analysis of phonetic theory and a technic for the practical description of sounds. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1943. ix, 182 pp.

Sanford, F. H. Speech and personality. *Psych. Bull.* 39: 811–45. Dec. 1942.

Reviews the research on the significance of the mode of verbal expression. Bibliography.

Sokolowsky, R. R. Effect of the extrinsic laryngeal muscles on voice production. *Archives of Otolaryngology*, 38: 355–64. Oct. 1943.

The extrinsic muscles aid in tensing the cords and in making final adjustments, particularly in the production of high pitches.

Stetson, R. H. Contributions of teachers of the deaf to the science of phonetics. *Volta Rev.*, 45: 19–20, 54, 56. Jan. 1943.

'Speech is not a matter of sounds; it is a matter of movement.'

Thorndike, E. L. The origin of language. *Science*, 98: 1–6. July 2, 1943.

After reviewing current theories the author adds his own, 'babble-luck' theory.

Voelker, C. H. Studies in geographical phonetics: American speech in Connecticut. *Maître phonétique*, no. 80, pp. 20–21. July-Dec. 1943.

Analysis of the occurrence of sounds in Victor record, American Speech, no. 69B (*Am. Sp.*, 12: 58–59, 1937).

AMONG THE NEW WORDS

DWIGHT L. BOLINGER
Yale University

SLAP-HAPPY appears to have been the first of a now very numerous progeny of *happy,* 'dizzy, exhilarated,' used as a combining form. The allusion to intoxication is obvious in that *slap-happy* is a synonym of *punch-drunk.* The earlier extensions usually contrived to rime with *slap*: 'Police thought he was just *sap-happy*' (i.e., drunk; Los Angeles *News* 27 July 1940 p. 2/1-2); '*Scrap-happy,* slap-happy' (movie ad, Topeka *Journal* 28 Sep. 1940 p. 2A); 'I'm *snap-happy* since I discovered Kleenex cleans the . . . lens of my camera' (*Saturday Evening Post* 212:38 p. 46); '*Tap-Happiest,* Swing-Singiest, Melodic Miracle' (movie ad, 30 Oct. 1941, quoted in *American Speech* Apr. 1942 p. 131/2).

Later examples, as well as some early ones, are more versatile: '*Hate-happy* bond-salesmen' (*Nation* 13 Apr. 1940 p. 469/1); '*Hitler-happy*' (in film 'Confessions of a Nazi Spy,' 1940); 'This now *power-happy* intelligence, representing itself to be your Government' (*Saturday Evening Post* 12 Oct. 1940, cited Sargent *Bulletin 92* p. 4); 'A girl who is a good girl but *footlight-happy*' (i.e., stage-struck; *New Republic* 9 Dec. 1940 p. 789/2).

Now the Army has taken over: '*Bar happy, stripe-happy*' (*American Speech* Oct. 1942 p. 183); 'The [Signal] Corps prefers stable, medium-speed [telegraph] operators, is suspicious of *"dit-happy"* men who break world records' (*Life* 15 Feb. 1943 p. 82).

Examples from Miss Meredith are all military: 'As we went through this campaign we have lived in everything but a building. There have been Cactus Patches, Grain Fields, Waddies . . . , Sand Dunes . . . and many other places which would give us cover and concealment. Living in the above named places along with the conditions that we had to endure started a phrase of *"Cactus"* or *"Olive Happy"* ' (General Motors *News and Views,* letter dated July 1943); *Flak Happy* (name of a Flying Fortress; Omaha *World-Herald* 17 Oct. 1943): 'After really bad nervous cases have undergone treatment—they have become what soldiers call *"bomb happy"*—they are tested for their reactions to battle noises' (London *Daily Express,* reprinted in *Britain* Oct. 1943): 'Advancing British captured numerous prisoners from the German 65th infantry division, described as *"bomb happy,"* indicating they were shocked and demoralized from the heavy bombing and shelling' (A.P. desp. 30 Nov. 1943); 'Cadets are taught here to be *"trigger happy"*: to shoot at anything any

time' (*Life* 1 Nov. 1943); 'In camp, a man conspicuous for his odd behavior. . . . If he was a British Tommy on the North African desert, he may have gone "lurgy lurgy" or *"sand happy."* . . . In Iceland he is *"glacier happy"* ' (*Fortune* Dec. 1943 p. 268).

Besides that given in the body of the text, credit goes to the following: Mr. John P. Bethel, four citations including the earliest for *Molotov cocktail* and *radar* (the latter disclosing the term to have been public property almost two years before it was officially 'released'); Miss Mamie Meredith, three citations; Corp. A. W. Read, two citations including the earliest for *lunatic fringe;* Ensign Bill Carter, the earliest citation for *boot;* Mr. D. W. Maurer, the proposed etymology of *corny;* Mr. Jerry Shaw, the technical information on *recap* and *retread;* Miss Dorothy Vilven, the earliest citation of *man-tailored.*

SYMBOLS: The symbol + before a word or definition indicates an Americanism. A date immediately following a word or definition indicates the time of evidence shown in the DAE, or, if so stated, in another publication. Dates in brackets indicate the time, etc., of British usage. An asterisk used after a word indicates that the word is illustrated in British usage before 1600.

+ALCAN. The Alaska Highway.—1943 letter from Mr. Lawrence J. Burpee, International Joint Commission, Ottawa, Canada 31 Mar. This name was adopted by the Chief of Engineers of the United States War Department early in April, 1942, purely as a short and convenient name for the highway that had been undertaken. The highway was at first known as the Canadian-Alaskan Military Highway, which was found too cumbersome. The name Alcan has never been formally adopted by either the United States Government or the Canadian Government and has no official standing. 1943 Topeka *Journal* 15 Jan. p. 1/6-7 A six months' job on the Alcan highway.

+BOOT.—1901 Austin M. Knight *Modern Seamanship* p. 784 [*Boot*] a recruit. 1940 *Time* 11 Nov. p. 22 To mold 'boots' (Navy lingo for recruits) into the indefinable likeness of a Marine takes hard work on a rigid regimen. 1943 *Saturday Evening Post* 8 May p. 26/3 The officers, many of them reservists, and the crew, 60 per cent boots, were honing for action.

+COKE. A drink of Coca-Cola.—1938 Whitman Chambers *Once Too Often* (Mercury Books) p. 79 I killed ten minutes drinking two cokes. 1942 *Life* 16 Feb. p. 38 Beverly . . . has dates with the boys at camp, dances and drinks Cokes with them.

+CORNY. [*Cornfed,* countrified]. Old-fashioned, sentimental, stale, yokelish, esp. as applied to music. 1939 (W.)—1938 *Collier's* 16 July p. 13/1 He can go corny or classical, and make 'em jump for the rafters. 1941 *Time* (Air Exp. Ed.) 19 May p. 27/3 Corny as a back-country bumpkin, [Jack] Oakie has turned his corniness into a salable commodity. *Ibid.* 8 Sep. p. 1/2 The corny annual get-together of the Franklin Roosevelt Home Club.

DECOLONIZATION.—1941 Richard F. Behrendt *Economic Nationalism in Latin America* (University of New Mexico Inter-Americana Short Papers I, Albuquerque) p. 2 We see today all over Latin America a virtually universal, and in some cases violent, reaction to foreign ownership of important productive enterprises, a movement which in its essence is aiming at . . . a kind of economic in-

dependence of those countries, through the nationalization of foreign-owned enterprises and what is sometimes described as 'DECOLONIZATION' of those countries. . . . [*Footnote*] The term is used by W. Feuerlein and E. Hannan, *Dollars in Latin America* (New York: Council on Foreign Relations, 1941), and has been used before by M. J. Bonn, *The Crumbling of Empire* (London: Allen and Unwin, Ltd., 1938).

+ESSENTIALISM. An educational doctrine which stresses time-proven techniques and disciplines, esp. as opposed to the practises of progressivism.—1943 *Time* 13 Sep. p. 74/1 Essentialism . . . would give pupils systematic training in traditional subjects; discipline is stressed and informal learning strictly subordinated.

+ESSENTIALIST. An adherent of essentialism in education.—1938 W. C. Bagley in *Educational Administration and Supervision* April An Essentialist's Platform for the Advancement of American Education. 1943 *Time* 13 Sep. p. 74/1 Progressive education was enjoying a boost last week from the ranks of its professional enemies—the Essentialists.

+EXTON. A Du Pont plastic.—1939 *Reader's Digest* Feb. p. 81/2 Toothbrush bristles that will not soften in water or saliva are made from Exton, a plastic. 1941 Montgomery Ward Fall-Winter Catalog p. 516 Brushes are made with . . . Exton bristles.

FREEZE. To make immobile or inflexible. 1934 (W.). +To arrest, at a given stage, the development or evolution of; used esp. of the standardization of industrial design so as to make mass production possible.—1937 *Harper's* July p. 192/1 With the excessive costs freezing taxes on poverty. 1937 John Gunther *Inside Europe* (Harper and Bros.) p. 123 It would, by 'freezing' the present borders, prevent Anschluss, union of Germany and Austria. 1941 *Time* (Air Exp. Ed.) 26 May p. 22/3 General Electric . . . had . . . frozen its models of receivers and tubes. 1942 *Time* 20 Apr. p. 56/2 The Otter [a small merchantman] was only experimental, was never intended to be a frozen design.

+HORSE CAVALRY. Mounted soldiery using horses rather than motorized conveyances.—1940 A.P. desp. in Topeka *Journal* 3 Apr. p. 13/2-3 General Herr said . . . 'the precise methods of employment as well as the scope of action of horse cavalry has been affected . . . by air and mechanization. *Harper's* Dec. p. 4/2 An extended defense of horse cavalry before a Congressional committee. 1941 *Time* (Air Exp. Ed.) 13 Oct. p. 19/2 [Discipline] could be seen in the achievements of the engineers, in such outfits as the Armored Force and horse cavalry.

+LUNATIC FRINGE. The extremist or unbalanced minority of an organization or movement.—1928 Arthur M. Schlesinger *New Viewpoints in American History* (reprinted in Platt and Perrin *Current Expressions of Fact and Opinion* 1941) p. 367 Advocates for new advances must employ the militant and fantastic methods which mark the 'lunatic fringe' of a new crusade for reform [phrase attributed to Theodore Roosevelt]. 1938 *Nation* 20 Aug. p. 167/2 Their [the pro-fascists'] behavior [toward Jews] was dismissed as a product of reaction's lunatic fringe. 1942 *PMLA Supplement* Part 2 p. 1374 Members of the 'lunatic fringe' among educationists.

+MAN-TAILORED. Of women's clothes, tailored after the manner of men's clothes.—1940 Sears, Roebuck and Co. *Spring and Summer Catalog* p. 58 Man-tailored suits . . . have won. 1940 adv. Topeka *Journal* 27 May p. 5/1 gray, man-tailored Sports Suit.

MICROFILM. To photograph on microfilm.—1942 *Reader's Digest* Nov. p. 80 Most of the letters are microfilmed.

MOLOTOV COCKTAIL.—1940 *Life* 21 Oct. p. 13 'Molotov cocktails' are empty pint beer bottles, scored so that they will easily break, filled with explosives and corked. A fuse is then attached to each bottle. 1943 *Reader's Digest* June p. 17/1 *Der Russe* has also shown an ingenuity displeasing to the Germans. He devised the Molotov cocktail out of an

empty vodka bottle, gasoline siphoned from a crippled tank, and cotton batting from his own quilted uniform.

+PARA-SKI. Of parachute troops, equipped with skis.—1942 Topeka *Capital* 8 Mar. p. 7C/1 'Let 'er Buck,' Shouts U. S. Para-Ski Troop. 1942 *Christian Science Monitor* 26 Mar. p. 3 inset Para-ski troopers of the 503rd Parachute Battalion.

+PARA-SKIER. A member of a para-ski troop.—1942 *Christian Science Monitor* 26 Mar. p. 3/4-6 'Let 'Er Buck' Is War Cry of Para-Skiers.

+PERCENTAGE. A share of winnings or profits; a rake-off. 1934 (W.). +Profit in general.—1940 *The Woman* Sep. p. 69/1 Marge was courageous and a straight shooter but there was no more percentage in taking her out than one of the other guys. 1941 *Saturday Evening Post* 22 Mar. p. 101/3 There wasn't no percentage in tryin' to get the pilot. He was barbecue, anyway.

+PREMIERE, *v.* To give a premiere of; to have a premiere.—1938 letter from W. W. Blancké 22 Feb. To première (pronounced prēmyĕr)—announcer of some radio station . . . 'This composition was premièred (or *premièred*) at such a time and place.' 1940 Winchell col. Topeka *Journal* 11 Dec. p. 4/6 There's irony in the request of Grinnell college's alumni that Frank Capra should premiere 'Meet John Doe' there. 1943 *Newsweek* 13 Sep. p. 101 Keepsakes, a new Sunday program . . . premièred on Blue Sep. 5, 8–8:30.

RADAR. [*R*adio *d*etecting *a*nd *r*anging].—1942 *Britannica Book of the Year* p. 558 Another important wartime development was the 'Radar,' a new application of newly developed vacuum tubes which were capable of generating surprisingly large amounts of ultrahigh frequency power. The British disclosed in the press that this device was exceedingly effective in the detection and location of enemy planes. 1942 *Army Regulations 615-26,* 15 Sep. p. 597 Radar operator, designated set, under direction of a radar repairman, performs various duties as a member of a team which operates a designated radar set. Sets up a designated radar set; sets up radar equipment and operates it in accordance with prescribed procedures.

RECAP. To put a cap on (a thing) again. [1856–]. +To re-surface a tire [see first citation for process]; a tire so re-surfaced.—1940 Rubber Manufacturers Assn. *Manual of Retreading and Recapping* (N. Y., 2nd ed. 1942) In recapping, it is necessary to make a distinction between a full recap and a top-cap. . . . In full recapping the old tread is not removed as in retreading. Instead, the worn tire is rasped across the top of the tread and over the shoulders as far as the new rubber is to be extended. . . . In top capping, only the top of the old tread is rasped. . . . All the new rubber is applied just to the top of the tread. 1942 sign observed in Kansas City, Mo., 3 Jan. Jobbers of high-grade recap tires.

+RETREAD. To re-surface a tire [see first citation for process]; a tire so re-surfaced; *also fig.*—1940 Rubber Manufacturers Assn. *Manual of Retreading and Recapping* (N. Y., 2nd ed. 1942) p. 1. The term 'retreading,' broadly used, refers to applying a new tread to a worn tire. For instruction purposes it is necessary to know whether the new tread is to be a retread, a full recap or a top-cap. . . . *Retreading* . . . refers to the process of removing all the old tread including the breaker, and replacing with new material. 1943 *Fortune* Oct. p. 240 The men Borum called upon when he formed his general staff were largely chosen among civilians who had flown in the last war, and who had since maintained contact with aviation. Going back into uniform and calling themselves 'retreads.'

+ROLL-BACK, ROLLBACK. A forcible return (of prices) to a former, and lower, level.—1942 *Time* 11 May p. 80 OPA had denied their [retailers'] plea for a 'roll-back' of ceiling dates that would recognize the lag between rising wholesale and retail prices. 1943 *Newsweek* 16 Aug. p. 16 Price rollbacks

through payment of subsidies to process are one phase of the program. *Time* 27 Sep. p. 88 A new cost of living rollback.

+SCRIPT. To write (a scenario); to change (a plot or story) into a scenario.—1940 *Writer's Journal* Oct. p. 8/1 Charles Martin is again scripting for radio. 1941 *Time* (Air Exp. Ed.) p. 29/1 Hammett . . . has been scripting his thrillers for Hollywood. 1943 *New Masses* 30 Nov. p. 28/1 John Howard Lawson, who scripted the film.

+SHANGRI-LA. [The setting of James Hilton's *Lost Horizon*, 1933]. An imaginary, or secret, military (esp. air) base.—[Cp. 1939 Van Wyck Mason *The Singapore Exile Murders* (N. Y., Pocket Books 1941) p. 18 Looks like the movie set of Shangri-La. 1941 *Time* (Air Exp. Ed.) 23 June p. 31/3 The Captain operates an insular Shangri-La.] 1942 A.P. desp. in Topeka *Capital* 22 Apr. p. 1/6 President Roosevelt said today [21 Apr.] that American planes reported to have bombed Japan last Saturday came from a new secret base in Shangri La, a fictional Utopia in Tibet. 1943 *Reader's Digest* Jan. p. 120/1 As soon as plans for moving troops overseas are made—to Shangri-la, let's say—requests for data on Shangri-la come to Medical Intelligence. 1943 newscast Station WEAF 26 Nov. Based on some Central Pacific Shangri-La.

WITCH-HUNTING. Political persecution.—1940 *Nation* 20 Jan. p. 74/2 Political motives and witch-hunting. 1941 *Time* 7 Apr. p. 55 The present wave of U.S. jitters will pass, as did four other waves of 'witch-hunting.' 1942 *Reader's Digest* Feb. p. 12/1 Our men do their jobs without the brutality and witch-hunting which has scourged the authoritarian countries. 1942 *Christian Science Monitor* 25 Mar. p. 6/1 Whether innocent persons have been persecuted . . . or whether it all adds up to 'witch-hunting' . . . will have to be left to . . . the facts [concerning the Oklahoma 'book trials']. *Time* 10 Aug. p. 78/2 The witch-hunting First New Deal. 1943 *Progressive* 4 Jan. p. 12/2 The general condition is far better than in World War I in terms of freedom of debate and criticism, lack of witch-hunting.

ZANY. Clownish; foolish; idiotic. [1616–]. *Obs.* 1934 (W.)—1943 letter from C. C. Mish 2 Apr. To prevent the use of 'zany' as an adjective. *Saturday Evening Post* 10 Apr. p. 15/1 Spike Jones and his zany band.

MISCELLANY

LOUISE POUND
University of Nebraska

'KNOW-HOW'

The use of *know-how* as a noun seems to be growing by leaps and bounds. The General Motors Corporation, in its thirty-fourth annual report, May, 1943, gives the definition, 'Know-how is an all including term. It reflects all phases of the task of getting the job done. It includes the coordinated efforts of the entire personnel.' In a pamphlet, 'Model Changes—War Style,' issued by the same company in 1942, we read (page 7): 'I would like to say further that this highly involved technique of change—this preparation to make something different—this knowledge born of intensive experience—THIS KNOW HOW—is the really big thing that the automobile industry has offered our country. . . .' A leaflet issued by the Chase National Bank, of New York, in May, 1943, says: 'A bank, merely with its "know-how," may save an estate the equivalent of its fees (or more) in the initial wind-up of your affairs. . . .'

Other recent examples are: 'Similarly the sharing of technological knowledge—the know-how—is illustrated. . . .' ('Forty-first Annual Report of the U. S. Steel Corporation,' March, 1943.) 'North America offers technical genius—"Know-How" it is called in Detroit and Toronto, is it not?—or superb organizing ability, a pattern for assimilation of heterogeneous elements.' (Fernando Carajal, President Rotary International, in *Rotarian,* February, 1943, p. 7.) 'What can we do to help? . . . The know-how is in three answers printed in the February *Key,* 1942.' (*Key,* Kappa Kappa Gamma, December, 1942.)

We are indebted to Mr. Clifton P. Williamson, of New York City, for the following comments on *know-how* as it is applied in patent law:

'The word has taken the place, to some extent, of the phrase, common in the terminology of patent law and practice, "skill of the art."

'The statute governing patents provides that an applicant for a patent, in his written application, must set forth a description of his invention or discovery "and of the manner and process of making, constructing, compounding and using it, in such full, clear, concise, and exact terms as to enable any person skilled in the art or science to which it appertains . . . to make, construct and use the same."

'Probably emphasis should be placed, at the moment, on the word "use." I understand (although I am not a patent lawyer and so am not "skilled in the art") that often only enough is stated in an application technically to comply with the statute but not enough fully to instruct the reader of the application and the patent in the practical

"use" of the invention. Thus, in an application for a patent for a compound or composition of matter the ingredients, their proportions, and the manner of mixing must be given. Still, I am told, even one "skilled in the art" may be unable to use the patent successfully. Your grandmother probably had and used recipes for delectable dishes which she made with high success, while a friend to whom she gave the lifeless writing failed miserably. Grandmother did not furnish the "know-how" to a mere friend—she gave it to her daughter.

'You will readily see how it came about that, when the wicked corporations—Thurman Arnold's stepping-stones to fame—got together and exchanged patent rights among themselves, as a matter of mutual help and advantage they furnished each to the others the "know-how." So, when the courts came to punish the wicked corporations for their "unlawful combinations in restraint of trade and commerce" in pooling their patents, they required the malefactors not only to grant licenses to all comers but also to furnish the "know-how" to these outsiders.

'A young patent lawyer of my acquaintance tells me that he first heard the word "know-how" used in this connection about the year 1935.'

Mr. Williamson also calls to our attention the following definition, made in the District Court of the United States for the District of New Jersey about March, 1942, in an action brought by the United States against Standard Oil Company and others involving patents for making synthetic rubber:

> 'Know-how' means all the practice, experience and technical knowledge, useful to a licensee in his operations under any of the patents licensed under the terms of this decree, which is in the possession of any of the defendants on the date of the entry of this decree, or, useful to a licensee in his operations under any patents issued after said date which are subject to licensing under the terms of this decree, in the possession of any of the defendants on the date of issue of each of such patents. . . .

A FURTHER NOTE ON THE PLACEMENT OF CORRELATIVES

In an earlier article in these pages it was shown that parallelism, traditionally prescribed for correlatives, is not a justifiable essential for all kinds of sentences in which they appear.[1] The variety of instances cited as defensibly nonconforming to the rule may have raised a question in many readers' minds, namely, if so many nonparallel types can be justified, why bother with the principle at all; should we not throw the whole doctrine overboard and forget our imaginary fears?

This may well be as effective in school teaching as the customary call for strict parallelism—which we must admit does not register with more than a rare percentage of sensitized minds. It may well be also that this is what we are com-

1. Lillian Mermin, 'On the Placement of Correlatives in Modern English,' *American Speech,* 18: 171-191 (October, 1943).

ing to—dispensing with any set formula but dealing with obviously inept placements just as they are dealt with when they concern other sentence elements than correlatives: that is, recognizing the general desirability of orderliness and avoidance of ambiguity. Supporters of the rule will of course argue that that is the very basis of the doctrine of parallelism—avoidance of ambiguity—but they need to see that their precise and overly consistent application of the parallel principle often creates awkwardness that is less desirable than the theoretical ambiguity it circumvents.

In any case, there would seem to be some need for a reasonable baseline of revised doctrine. The quarrel, after all, is not with the principle of parallelism, but with the mechanistic, 'perfect' application of it, which so often forces the meaning and vitality of language into the shadow of the stylized physical structure. Can we not formulate a statement on correlatives that will face this fact? The elements to be covered seem clear:

1) the correlation or connection of two ideas;

2) the construction of these ideas in terms basically of equal grammatical value;[2]

3) frequency of omissions in the construction of the second idea: most commonly of articles and prepositions, but also of verbs, phrases, and—in the case of *whether . . . or*—of complete clauses ('both the left and right'; 'both in America and England'; 'She not only bought a dress, but a complete new wardrobe';[3] 'either as concerned with my past or my future'; 'whether because it is a thing or the name of a dead person');

4) common variation in word order, the first correlative often coming *within,* rather than before, the grammatical element it concerns (creating 'duplicate' wording in the second idea, as in: 'They are good people, with not only believing hearts, but with active, creative minds'; 'The writer is not only a writer but is an artist as well'; 'They were not only taught cooking but were shown the advantages of housekeeping'; 'He will not only send you a copy, but he will see that it goes air mail').[4]

If the handbooks would take the lead and revise their guiding statements on the use of correlatives on some such basis as this, it should

2. I use Professor Perrin's phrase 'of equal grammatical value,' omitting his 'and in parallel form.' (Porter G. Perrin, *An Index to English,* 1939.)

3. Or 'They were not only taught cooking and sewing, but also fishing and drying'—which combines this verbal omission with an inside placing of the first correlative, as described in paragraph 4.

4. The last example contains 'duplication of both verb auxiliary and subject. Note that in each of these pairs of correlative expressions containing verbs we have either wholly identical verb forms or identical verb auxiliaries. The question arises, What about sentences where the verb forms differ completely, as in 'She is either staying a week or will leave tomorrow'? Shall we be consistent and allow these? This type usually seems less orderly than the others, and probably does not deserve as free acceptance—at least for the present. (Apparently 'consistency'—whether it be restrictive or liberalizing—is an aim not necessarily desirable.)

not be too long before other molders of style would follow suit. We might then have arrived at a really mature handling of this grammatical problem.

LILLIAN MERMIN
New Haven, Connecticut

'BLACKWASH,' 'WHITEWASH,' 'PUT IN ONE'S POCKET'

Blackwash is, it seems to me, a useful word which deserves reviving. *Webster's New International,* second edition, enters it as meaning, figuratively, to calumniate. I have found it so used only once, in 1879, in the Lincoln, Nebraska, *State Journal,* August 5, p. 3/4, in an editorial characteristic of pioneer journalism:

> Then to be black-washed by this little smut-hill [editor of *Globe,* Lincoln, Nebr.] is encouraging. (We think decent people have but one legitimate use for this dirty sheet.)

Whitewash was used a few years earlier by the *Journal* in a sense that seems to me less current. It usually means to exonerate or clear from charges. *Webster's* enters a 'U.S.' usage meaning to defeat an opponent so that he fails to score, or to reach a given point or score. This is the meaning evidently intended in the following quotation. It is a synonym for the oftener occurring 'skunk.'

> The second match game of croquet [reported the *Journal,* June 26, 1874, p. 4/1] took place yesterday morning, and resulted in a second *whitewash* for the latter named gentleman.

Another expression which I have come upon only in the old issues of the *Journal* is *to put in a pocket.* It is defined in *Webster's* as to appropriate to oneself. Is this the meaning intended in the newspaper sentence, March 7, 1885, p. 5/3, that speaks of 'putting a stage driver in a pocket by taking his customers'? To me the expression suggests, not 'appropriation' of the driver (or his customers) but rather pushing him into a *cul-de-sac.*

C. D. P.
Lincoln, Nebraska

A WORD-LIST FROM CAPTAIN KING'S NOVELS

The following expressions were noted in three novels by Charles King, a captain in the United States Army during the latter part of the nineteenth century and a writer of light fiction with historical background. The words would appear to be those in current use during the border days, from 1860, perhaps, to 1880. The novels are *The Queen of Bedlam* (1889), locale Fort Laramie, *Fort Frayne* (1895), locale Fort Frayne, and *An Army Wife* (1897), locale Fort Sedgewick. They are referred to respectively as *QB, FF, AW.*

All struck of a heap (*QB,* 27): shaken by fright.

amaze (*QB,* 18 and *passim*): used for amazement, as 'in amaze.'

boomed (*QB* 103): exaggerated.

bluffers (*FF* 24): Indian warriors (particular use obscure, but may refer to their fighting on or along the bluffs).

boiling over with ginger (*FF* 40): eager to go, to be up and doing.

Co. Ike (*AW* 197): Companies I and K of the infantry were skeletonized companies. Companies hit by transfers,

calls for replacements, were called 'Co. Ike.'

Co. Q (*AW* 197): Soldier prisoners; the guard-house contingent.

cutty (*QB* 36): a short tobacco pipe.

doing the devoted (*QB* 37): paying court to a woman.

dry camp (*QB* 96): encampment without water available.

fooling party (*QB* 129): an Indian decoy party used to mislead U.S. patrols.

gad-abouts (*QB* 27): visits within the fort paid at random, i.e., without invitation.

jumped (*QB* 101): ambushed (a stage-coach).

make up (*AW* 171): to effect a reconciliation after quarrel.

peaked looking (*QB* 182): with a pale countenance preceding illness.

pidgin (*AW* 244): refers to Chinese servant's broken English.

pestilence in petticoats (*QB* 105): a female alarmist at the fort.

prairie fort (*QB* 208): circle of wagons for defense against Indians.

pair of spoons (*AW* 272): sweethearts.

ride square in (*FF* 42): to ride directly into (as into an Indian attack).

raft (*AW* 148): fled (unceremoniously).

stinger (*QB* 28): sharp retort.

spread-eagle (*QB* 122): exaggerative, boastful (appears to relate to accounts of prowess).

soft (*FF* 23): weak from lack of drill or exercise.

slumping off (*FF* 5): refers to snow on hills sliding into a river during the thaw.

take a shine to (*AW* 251): to find sudden affection for.

that's business (*AW* 182): that is serious (used in referring to Indian attacks).

wire (*AW* 164): a telegraphic message.

MARTIN S. PETERSON
University of Nebraska

SOME AMERICANISMS FROM TEXAS IN 1848

The following observations resulting from the perusal of the little volume *Texas im Jahre 1848* by Viktor Bracht (Elberfeld u. Iserlohn, 1849) may be interesting and informative to those engaged in studying the American vocabulary on historical principles.

CANNA. DAE has: 'One of a genus of tropical plants of the family *Cannaceae* much cultivated in gardens.' DAE's first citation is dated 1863. Bracht, p. 67: 'Unter diesen Blüthen der weiten westlichen Wildnisz verdienen Erwähnung . . . Lobelia cardinalis, eine sehr bunte Canna, Hibiscus, Solidago.'

CREOLE PONY. DAE under *Creole* + 6 has: '1853 "P. Paxton" *Yankee in Texas* 378 Planters and stock-raisers in Texas keep many horses, but they are usually of the small breed of Louisiana Creole ponies, or those of the Spanish kind.' Bracht, p. 85: 'Nach diesen kommt das sogenannte Kreolen-pferdchen, auch Opelousas poney genannt, ein ausgezeichnetes Damenpferd.' There can be no doubt that in 'Kreolenpferdchen' Bracht is translating a current expression, 'Creole pony,' especially since he uses the word pony three words later.

DEVIL'S HORSE. DAE has '+*Devil's-Horse S.* The praying mantis.—1884 Sweet and Knox *Through Texas* xliv. 629 Another of the most peculiar and interesting insects in Texas is called the "devil's horse." 1908 *Dialect Notes* III. 304. Devil's horse . . . [is] sometimes called devil's ridin(g) horse.' See also DAE under +*Devil's riding horse.* Bracht has both usages, p. 81: 'Unter diesen [Insekten] das manchmal geflügelte, manchmal auch ohne Flügel vorkommende 'Gespenst' (devil's horse, Teufels Reitpferd) . . . welches, wenn man es berührt, fortwährend die possierlichsten Verbeugungen macht.'

LAND PIRATE. DAE has: '1 A robber {1609} . . . +2 (See quot. 1847.) . . . 1847 Coyner *Lost Trappers* p. 70. The greater part of the country . . . was infested with a variety of tribes of Sioux, whose predatory habits justly secured to them the title of "land pirates." ' This

and the DAE quot. from Paxton, p. 370, would indicate that the term meant as much as a pirate whose activities are carried on on *terra firma* rather than on the seas. The following passage from Bracht evidently shows a third meaning of the term, *viz.*, a person who pirates or appropriates by questionable means or methods the 'land' of another. Bracht, p. 182: 'Viele, sehr viele [immigrants] sind noch übeler berathen gewesen und den sogenannten 'Landpiraten' in die Hände gefallen, welche stets billige, zum Teil urbar gemachte Strecken . . . anbieten, nachdem sie durch nicht vollständige Abtragung des Kaufpreises und das baldige Hinsterben der Bethörten immer, mitunter zehnmal nach einander, wieder Eigenthümer der verkauften Landgüter geworden sind.' It seems evident that these 'land-sharks' or 'land-sharps' are called 'land pirates' not because they operate *on land* but because they operate unscrupulously *with land or lands.*

MUSTANG GRAPE. DAE gives as its first citation: '1848 *Rep. Comm. Patents 1847* 198.' Bracht enumerates among the wild grapes (p. 66) 'die große, blaue, sogenannte Mustang-Traube, . . . die sogenannte Posteichen-Traube.' I cite this occurrence because it is coeval with the earliest yet cited and at the same time the passage contains *Post-oak grape,* whose first citation in DAE is only three years earlier, 1845, F. B. page, *Prairiedom,* 83.

OPELOUSAS PONY. See *Creole,* supra.

PONCHO. DAE has: 'A piece of heavy cloth or blanket having a slit in the center to permit its use as a cloak or raincoat. . . . 1847 Henry *Campaign Sk.* 232 The Mexicans were bundled up in their panchos [*sic*].' Bracht, p. 114: 'Bei sehr wenigen fehlt die bunte mexikanische Decke (poncho), welche als Ueberwurf zum Schutz gegen Regen und Kälte dient.' This becomes the earliest citation of *poncho* in its proper orthography.

POST-OAK GRAPE. See *Mustang grape,* supra.

REBOSO. DAE has: '+*Reboso* = next— 1853 in *Wkly. New Mexican* 9 Dec. (1864) 2/2 Some blanketed, with sombreros and cigarritoes . . . some with rebosos. +*Rebozo.* Also *reboza.* [Sp.] A shawl or long scarf worn over the head and shoulders by Spanish American women.' Citations for *rebozo* are from 1844, 1857. Bracht, p. 115: 'Bei den Mexikanerinnen ist allgemein noch die ächte spanische Mantille (reboso) in Gebrauch.' This, by far the earliest recording of this spelling of the word, is not much later than its first American recording in any form.

JOHN T. KRUMPELMANN
Louisiana State University

'THANK-YOU-MA'AM'

The origin of *thank-you-ma'am* as a term for a depression, or ridge, over which vehicles pass in a road, has aroused the curiosity of several inquirers. Professor John S. Kenyon ('Western Reserve,' *Dialect Notes,* IV, 402, 1917) notes its use in Ashtabula County, Ohio (also in Pennsylvania), and testifies that thank-you-ma'ams are also called *ducks-and-dips.* The name comes from the polite bow ('thank you ma'am') caused by the bounce when there is a 'hole in the road caused by snow.' E. K. Maxfield ('Maine List,' IV, 389, 1925) defines *thank-yer-marm* as 'a hollow in the road, especially in the snow.' On the other hand, A. G. Brodeur ('Comments on Recent Word Lists', V, 76, 1919) says that 'In New England [it is] not a hole of any kind but a high rounded ridge on the road causing a bounce when wheels pass over it. As our buggy struck one, and the bounce reacted, we would cry out "Thank-you-ma'am." '

The expression seems now to be known, in some degree, over most of the United States. In my experience in the central west it is used more often of a depression than of a ridge. *Excuse-me-ma'am* is a variant entered in the *American Thesaurus of Slang* by Berrey and Van den Bark (1942) with the same meaning.

L. P.

COAL-FLOUR

Mr. Walter Travis of South Dakota, who knows the customs of the Sioux Indians of his state, uses the term *rockahominy* in writing of 'Indian Stuff We Can Use' in the *American Legion* magazine of May, 1942. He suggests that his readers work out a program, according to Indian philosophy, to follow if disaster should come 'in the guise of war, or flood, or fire.' Pemmican, for example, could be made from the cows to be found almost anywhere in the country.

'And he'd look for other powerful, simple foods,' Mr. Travis goes on, 'such as *rockahominy,* or *pinole* or *coal-flour.* Under whatever name, it's corn, parched in clean ashes until it bursts, then sifted and blown clean and pounded to a coarse flour. A couple of spoonfuls of that, and a drink of water, made a meal that kept Indian runners alive—and it took energy to be an Indian runner.'

Pinole is defined in *Webster's* as 'seeds of various native plants of the southwestern United States, . . . parched, or roasted, and ground, the resulting meal being eaten dry, boiled, or baked, depending on the particular plant.'

The dictionaries enter *hominy,* too, from *rockahominy* of Algonquian origin, a dry maize product coarser than corn meal. But *coal-flour* is not entered in any dictionary that I have consulted, even the *Dictionary of American English.*

M. J. M.

'ECKRYDOCK' FOR 'AQUEDUCT'

Some thirty years ago, before the abandonment of the old Miami and Erie Canal connecting Cincinnati and Toledo, the term 'eckrydock' was used by the men and boys in our neighborhood who used to go swimming at a special point in the canal. We chose this place because it had a cement bottom and cement sides instead of the usual slimy mud, infested with snapping turtles and often littered with tin cans, broken glass, and similar junk. The cement bottom and sides, forming a great trough, were there because at this point the waters of the canal were carried over a creek cutting across the land at approximately right angles to the flow of the canal.

It never occurred to us to ask why this spot was called an 'eckrydock' by everybody—even by the local preachers and school teachers. When I began the study of Latin some years later, I realized that it was the local corruption of the word 'aqueduct' and not merely a term for the best swimming hole along the canal.

'Eckrydock' was specialized in meaning and was applied only to

aqueducts on the canal. There were other aqueducts in nearby cities, and the word was correctly pronounced when referring to them, even by those who habitually said 'eckrydock' when talking of the canal. I know several men in middle age who still, in reminiscent mood, use the term in its original meaning and do not suspect that it is not a word in wide use and good standing.

The term was used generally in this region, but I do not know whether it was used along the entire reaches of the old canal. In any case, it is fast becoming a dead word, since the object to which it was applied has virtually disappeared; the word itself will vanish with those who once used it unless recorded.

WILLIAM MARION MILLER
Miami University

OCCUPATIONAL JARGON

Once a student of phonetics, I am now a mechanic in a war industry, witnessing the coining of words and expressions which may never mean anything outside the shop, yet which may be of interest to readers of *American Speech.*

When a workman completes a unit, he hopes to *sell* it to the inspector. If the work is perfect, the inspector *buys* it; it is *sold.* In the drilling departments, one might hear a worker say, 'I am waiting for the company to buy this hole.' If there is anything wrong with the work, it is *squawked.* Since, in the larger units, there are invariably a number of *squawks,* the verb *to squawk* has become synonymous with *to inspect.* ('I have to go down here and squawk a ship.') A *ship* is any major section of an airplane. Printed forms labeled 'Squawk Sheets' are made out with official signatures, squawked by ——. A group of workmen *pre-squawk* a ship just before it goes to inspection, and the *squawk crew* work off squawks.

When paint is removed from parts to make them fit snugly, the material is said to be *bonded.* A paint remover with the trade name 'wash thinner' becomes *bonding* fluid; squares of woven cotton known as shop towels become *bonding cloths* or even *thinner rags.* Occasionally you hear someone say, 'Have these lines been *thinnered?*'

Official messages and communications are known as *A.V.O.*'s. Those initials mean 'Avoid Verbal Orders.' A new recruit is called a *newt.* The nose of a ship is a *rabbit* or *seal,* because its pointed shape resembles the nose of either of those animals. Junction boxes used for attaching electric cords become *juice boxes,* and then *juke boxes.* One type of squeeze-gun (pressure riveter) is known as an *alligator* because its contour resembles that animal. A *bucking-bar* is a piece of iron held on the back of a rivet to absorb the vibration and to cause the rivet to flatten. To *buck* rivets is to hold the bar straight and firmly, and to signal to the operator of the gun whether the rivet is of

proper dimensions or whether it needs to be hit again. A *bucker* is the performer of this painstaking process, and should share honors with Rosie the Riveter.

FERN JO ROGERS
Kansas City, Missouri

RADIO CLICHÉS

Two phrases not entirely unknown to radio auditors are 'from coast to coast' and 'the march of Time.' Without asserting their origins definitely, I wish merely to point out that the first occurs in *In Memoriam* (1850), LXVII, l. 14; and the latter in Thomas Campbell's *Pleasures of Hope* (1799), II, l. 468.

CHARLES DUFFY
Louisiana State University

AUTHORITY IN LANGUAGE

The men who make dictionaries understand that vocabulary is not fixed and that change in it is inevitable. Comment on this feature of language from the most comprehensive of all English dictionaries is: 'The living vocabulary is no more permanent in its constitution than definite in its extent. It is not today what it was a century ago, still less what it will be a century hence. Its constituent elements are in a state of slow but incessant dissolution and renovation. "Old words" are becoming obsolete and dying out: "new words" are continually pressing in.'

This liberal admission would have been just as true had 'decade' been substituted for 'century.' In fact, considering slang, the American phase of the English language undergoes some change daily. However, as much slang drops away and is lost, the true growth process may be rated with accuracy in a time symbol longer than 'day,' but certainly shorter than 'century.' The point is that a living language is ever in flux; it is not subject to 'standardization,' which in the view of proponents really means crystallization in fixed and forever dependable form.

Grammarians compile rules, printers issue manuals, courts adopt authorities, all apparently unaware that their efforts are like attempts to sweep back the tide or to make the sun stand still. But they mistake the real source of authority, which is the living core of language, the usage of the people. Most egregious are the claims of those who advertise dictionaries. We read that a certain dictionary is 'The Supreme Authority' and are then told in a second prospectus that another is 'The supreme authority without a rival or a prospect of a rival.'

From the nature of our language, authority in this field is a very qualified attribute. The function of a dictionary is to record, not to impose, usage. As usage, the real authority, is ever changing there can be no such thing as supreme authority in the static pages of a book. The ideal dictionary would include all words in all their meanings. Such a thing is possible, if at all, in only the form of an actively cultivated card catalog. It would

fill a large apartment. And it would be a telling witness against the likelihood of much authority in any printed extracts from it. With less pedantry, smugness, and even effrontery, that fact would be admitted and acted upon by all concerned. From the evidence before us, we can only conclude that those who advertise and sell dictionaries are a very different sort of people from those who make them.

W. L. McAtee

Chicago, Illinois

THREE WORDS IN THE APRIL, 1943, ISSUE

'Festival,' writes Dr. Kemp Malone (p. 139) 'is hardly a popular word; it is too formal in style for that.' In Pennsylvania this word is used popularly in connection with two different kinds of church affairs. The sacred programs staged on church holidays are called Christmas festivals, Easter festivals, etc. The outdoor evening parties at which church members sell and serve food are called ice cream festivals, strawberry festivals, etc. If a fire company or some similar profane group sponsors the affair, it is called a carnival.

Fox hole, listed in 'Among the New Words' (p. 149), goes back at least to the First World War. A history of Company F, 316th Infantry, A.E.F., mentions a 'vast field, pitted with "fox-holes" dug by our troops.' My impression is that the term refers usually to holes made or enlarged by soldiers rather than to natural hollows or shell holes.

Jerk seems to be considered only a noun in the illustrations on p. 150. In the headline, 'Aussies Meet Japs; Drive Jerks to Halt,' it would seem simpler to interpret 'drive' as a noun and 'jerks' in the ordinary dictionary sense of 'to move by starts.'

W. L. Werner

State College, Pa.

A NEBRASKA 'PODUNK'

Lore concerning the name *Podunk* has appeared in *American Speech* from time to time. The first discussion of it was perhaps 'The Locus of "Podunk" ' (IX, 80, February, 1934). According to the Nebraska *State Journal* (September 14, 1943), it now appears that there was a town called Podunk in Nebraska.

> Authority for that statement is J. A. Bingham of Lincoln, who was born on a homestead west of Brock in 1868, and it was Brock that was known as Podunk.
>
> According to Bingham the town of Brock was established long before the railroad came through. It had a general store, whose original owner operated it more than 50 years, a flour mill and other small businesses.
>
> The official name of the town was Howard, but because that was too 'dignified' the local wits called it Podunk, or any other name that came to mind, Bingham explained. In 1878 or 1879 the postoffice was changed to Podunk, Bingham added. When the Missouri Pacific was built in 1882, the name was changed to Brock . . .

An issue of the newspaper two days later brought further testimony:

> An old history of Nebraska published in the eighties confirms the recollections of James A. Bingham, Lincoln resident, that the town of Brock in Nemaha county was once Podunk. The historian says that it was thus named 'by some wags

in fun and derision.' The town was first named Dayton, then in order Howard, Clinton, Podunk and Brock.

MAMIE J. MEREDITH
University of Nebraska

QUERIES

To what does the expression *cat and dog pile* refer? A contributor conjectures that it is used of a miscellaneous pile of odds and ends of lumber. Information concerning it seems not to be available. One user of the expression was a South Dakotan.

A professor of education told a student to use in a letter of application the term *conductance,* this instead of the student's 'conduct of a class' or 'conducting a class.' The student writes that the only meaning for conductance he finds in dictionaries is a very technical electrical one. What about this?

Is *Powarp,* 'post-war planning,' a local coinage or has it wider circulation, originating elsewhere? The following is from the *Daily Nebraskan,* a student newspaper reporting events at the University of Nebraska. It was headed 'Hold Second in "Powarp" Forum Series': 'Speaking on "Global Trade," Dr. E. S. Fullbrook, professor of marketing, will conduct the second of a series of *"Powarp"* forums designed to interest students and faculty in the problems of post-war planning. Sponsored jointly by the University Council of Religious Welfare and the University Council on Post-War Reconstruction, the forums are held weekly in the Union.'

FEMININE WAR WORKERS

Garbician is the title of a cartoon in the September, 1943, issue of *Esquire,* p. 166. In the cartoon a woman in blue slacks drives the garbage motor truck.

'*Motorenes* Round Out a Year' heads a newspaper picture of October 3, 1943, of a girl at the wheel of an automobile. Below is the legend 'With one full year of service behind them, the "Motorenes" at the Base motor pool look ahead for another year of efficient service to Base personnel.'

'Thousands of plants are now employing *"Dorothy Dixes,"* a name given to but not liked by women employed to counsel and help women workers with problems both intra- and extramural.'—Herbert L. Stephen, *Printer's Ink,* September 10, 1943.

'A *tractorette* is a farm girl or woman who wants to help win the battle of the land to help provide Food for Freedom.'—Advertisement of the International Harvester Company in *Business Week,* August 22, 1942.

'A chorus of 150 Waves drew deafening applause with their song descriptions of life as *sailorines.*'—Chicago *Daily News,* June 17, 1943.

'Turning the tables and playing hosts to the *Kaydettes* of Fairbury and the *Wingettes* from Hebron, the soldiers of the Bruning air field invited the girls to a gala Hallowe'en celebration. . . . The dance held later at the recreation hall to the music of the Bruning army air field *Swingeroos* filled . . . a per-

fect evening.'—Newspaper item, November 7, 1943.

'Thirty-nine *"slick-chicks"* from LAC . . . traveled north 152 miles for a weekend of dancing . . . at Camp Cooke, California.'—'To the Best Dressed Men in the World,' issued at intervals by the Lockheed *Service Star,* September, 1943.

According to the Grey Advertising Agency, Inc., New York City, July, 1943, those known in the First World War as *war brides* are now *furlough brides.*

COMMERCIAL COINAGES

A *polivope* is a roundtrip envelope. According to an advertisement in *Authors and Journalists,* November, 1943, 'polivope reduces mailing costs like the dickens.'

'Sturdy *lizagator* pumps with new over the instep throat line for long wear and flattering appearance' were advertised in an Omaha, Nebraska, newspaper, October, 1943.

Under the heading *'Luk-shu-ri Knit,* America's Wonder Fabric' is advertised a line of wearing apparel made by the C. D. Company of Grand Rapids, Michigan.

'Handsome heavily weighted sleek wood and chromium *Torchieres* that provide three degrees of light for 18th Century rooms' are advertised, June, 1943, by a Washington, D.C., furniture store. The dictionary form of this French word is *torchère.*

FILMESE

'Biggest Show in Town Tomorrow. He's a *super-stupor* Sleuth! Red Skelton in Whistling in Dixie.' Newspaper advertisement, April, 1943.

'Both Oakie and Payne dazzle their fans with an outlandish assortment of plaid suits, satin vests and brilliant ties. Though the ribald *costumery* of the male stars leaves little to be desired by modern zoot-suiters, it remains for the charming Alice to wow 'em with her new gowns and headgear.' Clyde Rowen in Lincoln, Nebraska, *Sunday Journal and Star,* April 18, 1943.

'Attractive Evelyn Ankers of Universal Pictures models the latest in bathing suits—a one-piece *slimster* with rigid front and zippered elastic back.' Legend under a photograph in a morning paper.

'It was Bessie, you remember, who slashed painter Ronald Colman's masterpiece to ribbons in a fit of mingled rage and pique—and thus launched the girl who had created her upon a sea of troubles . . . *Filmically* speaking, of course. . . .' '. . . at 14, with no previous professional experience other than an occasional job of film-*extraing,* she found herself in the featured lead opposite John Loder in a British talkie.' Philip K. Scheuer in 'Ida Lupino,' *The Family Circle,* June 4, 1943.

'THE LAST STRAW'

What does 'the last straw' mean to most persons? In Henrietta Gerwig's *Handbook for Readers and Writers,* 1925, the phrase is defined as 'The only hope left; the last

penny; in allusion to the old proverb, " 'Tis the last straw that breaks the camel's back." ' To me it has always been associated with great provocation. It has always meant the straw that did break the camel's back in the fable, and this is what *Roget's Thesaurus* indicates. The related *to catch at a straw* ('A drowning man will catch at a straw') means a forlorn hope. To more than half of an English class at the institution where I teach, the expression *last straw* meant 'last chance' or 'last hope,' as in the *Handbook*. One member associated it with the drawing of straws.

J. M. M.

'DOG PUPS' AGAIN

In the issue of *American Speech* for October, 1943 (p. 235), Mr. Elrick B Davis of Washington, D.C., commented on my statements (Dec. 1942, p. 238) concerning the use of *dog pup*. He never heard it, he says, though associated with dogs all his life, and he seems skeptical concerning its currency. My experience with the term to designate a young male was had in connection with my husband's profession. He is a licensed veterinarian practicing from an up-to-date animal hospital in Lincoln, Nebraska, and his general practice includes the treatment of dogs, some of which are owned by fanciers and some by farmers and laymen. Bitches are frequently brought to the hospital to whelp. The owner of a bitch, whether fancier or layman, is always interested in the number of live pups and the division within the litter as to sex; so, in inquiring, the owner will ask, 'How many *dog pups* and how many bitches have I?' I was reporting an observation of my own, an observation which my husband verifies.

LOUISE ACKERMAN
Lincoln, Nebraska

VERBAL NOVELTIES

'A series of *caricatoons* of nationally known persons by Kenneth Stuart, one of America's finest satiric artists, with amiable lampoons by Ethel Jacobson whose humorous verse is well known to Post readers, will start in next week's issue.' *Saturday Evening Post,* March 13, 1943.

'Churches of the east capitol group, consisting of First Covenant, Wesley Methodist, Second Methodist and Caldwell Memorial United Brethren held a *"singspiration"* Sunday evening at Second Methodist Church of which Rev. J. W. Henderson is pastor. Sacred music sung by soloists and choruses made up the evening's program.' Lincoln, Nebraska *State Journal,* March 29, 1943.

The Niles Kimball Company of Oshkosh, Wisconsin, advertises among the goods it offers for sale *snapkins,* 'Three dozen strictly irresponsible cocktail napkins, all with different illustrations and gaily-rhymed cracks on the robust side, unconditionally guaranteed to start off any right-thinking party on its best foot.'

'But just try to take it through the Hays office. No gunsels allowed

there—not under that label anyhow. At least not if the Hays boys put every word under a *fleurdemalascope.*' A. A. Avery, *Saturday Review of Literature,* June 27, 1942.

A *Clubmobile,* a miniature Red Cross club on wheels, was demonstrated March, 1943, in Ellicot City, Maryland, before shipment over seas. It can be used as station wagon, stretcher, ambulance, or clubmobile. The 1943 project of the women's sorority Alpha Xi Delta is the purchase of a clubmobile for foreign service. The vehicle will contain space for books and magazines as well as cooking equipment and bunks for the crew of three American girls in Red Cross uniforms.

'The women's unit of the ROTC met for the first time yesterday afternoon and the results were more than pleasing to both the officers in command and the *coedets.*' *Daily Nebraskan,* March 26, 1943.

FOOD NOVELTIES

Peanets are sugar-roasted peanuts sold by Bon Candies Inc., Chicago.

Horsemeat burgers are advertised on large signs on some of the Wilshire boulevard drive-ins in Los Angeles.

'By grafting potato and tomato plants, a New York horticulturist has developed for dieters the *topato*—a vegetable balancing the starch of the spud against the slimming effects of the tomato.'—New York *Times,* quoted in the *Reader's Digest,* August, 1940.

'*Swinges* are popular with U.S. soldiers in Arabia. They are Arabian doughnuts, shaped by hand and dipped into a pool of olive oil heated over a wood fire.'—*American,* November, 1943, p. 14.

Meat substitutes on the market here and there are *Soysage, Stakelets, Victory Chops, Proteena. Extenders* and *stretchers* are various substances used to make meat, coffee, and other rationed foods 'go farther.' Soy bean meal is used as an extender in meat loaves, for example, and margarine or evaporated milk for butter.

T. P. Garrettson and Company of New York advertised (1943) *Lemonaise* as 'Mayonnaise at its best. It is made with fresh egg yolks, vegetable oils and pure lemon juice.' The same firm announces of its coffee, 'We do not claim that you will get *"Gingitosis"* or *"Hali-vitis"* if you drink other coffee . . . but it is no exaggeration to promise that there is nothing finer than Garrettson coffee.' It also offers for sale the '*Chemex* Coffee Maker, made of a single piece of Pyrex glass.'